

LONGMANS' NEW AGE HISTORIES

BOOK II

BRITAIN
IN THE OLD WORLD
AND THE NEW

(1485—1714)

By

E. H. DANCE, M.A.

WOLVERHAMPTON GRAMMAR SCHOOL

WITH ILLUSTRATIONS AND MAPS

NEW IMPRESSION

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By E H DANCE, M A

THE WORLD BEFORE BRITAIN
LONGMANS' NEW AGE HISTORIES

BOOK I

BRITAIN IN THE OLD WORLD (TO 1485)

BOOK II

BRITAIN IN THE OLD WORLD AND THE NEW
(1485—1714).

BOOK III

BRITAIN IN THE MODERN WORLD (SINCE 1714)

BRITISH AND FOREIGN HISTORY

BOOK I EUROPE AND THE OLD WORLD
THE MIDDLE AGES

BOOK II NEW EUROPE AND THE NEW
WORLD (16TH TO 18TH CEN
TURIES)

BOOK III THE MODERN WORLD (SINCE THE
18TH CENTURY)

OUTLINES OF BRITISH SOCIAL HISTORY

With 48 Illustrations and 2 Time Charts

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PREFACE

THIS Course seeks to meet the wider requirements of modern history teaching by providing not only the necessary outline of British History, Social as well as Political, but also as much World History as circumstances permit (this has been done, firstly by beginning with a summary of Ancient History, into which the earliest British History is fitted, and secondly, by connecting the chief movements in British History with parallel movements abroad) The Course also includes Source Readings (one or two to each chapter); plenty of Maps; illustrations chosen for their teaching value as well as for their interest, lists of Books for Further Reading; and, perhaps most important of all, since it is now acknowledged that History can only justify its prominence in the curriculum by stimulating thought and so proving itself really "educative," a series of detailed Exercises, based directly on the reading matter

The Exercises are arranged on a systematic plan—first, exercises on the Source Readings, then exercises of a more or less practical character (Time Charts, Diagrams, Maps, etc), for the amassing of facts, and finally two groups of Questions, of which those in Group I are mainly tests of memory and preparation, while those in Group II demand some originality in the answering The proportion of questions in Group I diminishes and that in Group II increases as the course proceeds.

The reading matter owes much to the kind help of friendly critics, to whom I wish to express my thanks—especially Professor T S Ashton and Professor B Wilkinson, who read the whole of the manuscript, Sir William Foster, C.I.E.

(Historiographer of the India Office), who made many invaluable suggestions about the treatment of Indian History, and Mr K A Crofts, for help with the Introduction on Ancient History. Text-books for schools, however, necessarily contain many simplifications which specialists may feel inclined to challenge, though most teachers will know their value, and for all such I must myself be held responsible.

The Illustrations are derived from authentic sources, and I hope they will prove really valuable as teaching material. For permission to reproduce many of them I am again indebted to the assiduous courtesy of the Print Room authorities at the British Museum, to Sir Henry Lyons, the Director of the Science Museum, South Kensington; and to many others who have helped me in various ways.

E. H. D.

NOTE TO NEW IMPRESSION

In this reprint the opportunity has been taken to correct several errors of statement and to modify some sentences which may have been misleading. I am very grateful to those who have helped me by suggesting useful changes.

E. H. D.

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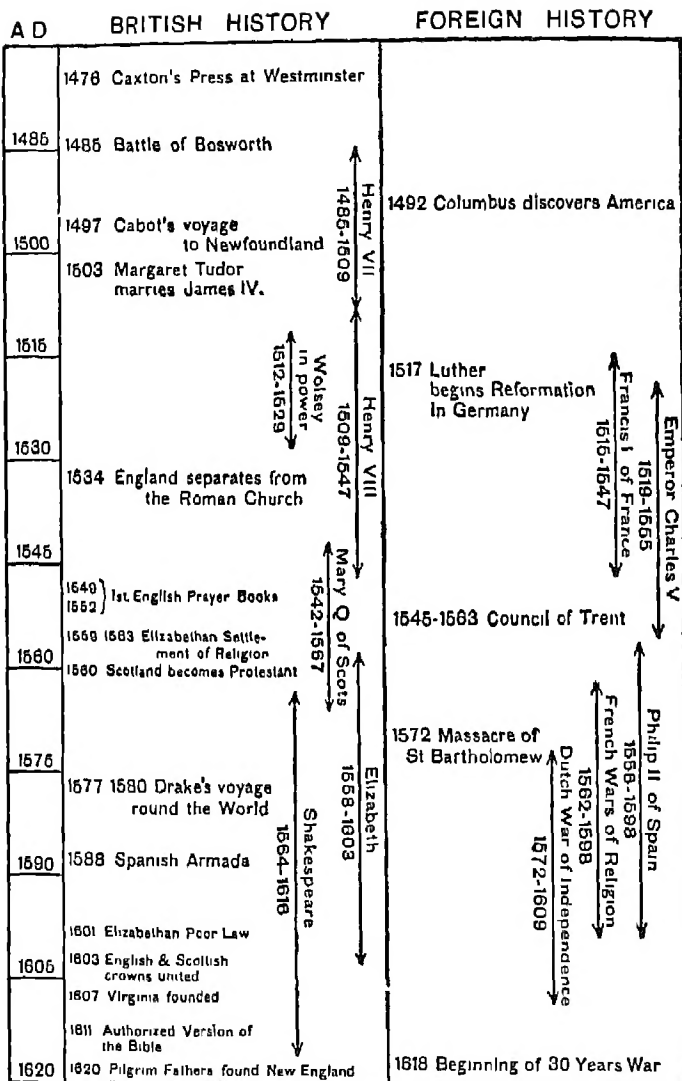
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TIME CHART 1470 TO 1620 A D.

(Scale: 1 inch = 30 years)

ENGLAND UNDER THE TUDORS

CHAPTER I

HENRY VII

THE battle of Bosworth (at which Henry VII defeated Richard III in 1485) really ended the Wars of the Roses ; but no one was certain of this at the time. It was not until Henry VII showed himself to be a strong ruler that the English began to feel safe under the new Tudor dynasty, and for the first years of his reign Henry was troubled by the Yorkists, who still hoped to win back the crown for themselves. The leader of the Yorkists was now the Princess *Elizabeth*, the daughter of Edward IV ; but Henry married her, so that the Yorkists could no longer fight for her against the new king ; and as soon as they had a son (in 1486) nearly all the Yorkists, as well as the Lancastrians, acknowledged him as one of themselves, and were willing to wait until he should become king after his father's death. In the meantime Henry gave the country good government, with peace and prosperity. That was what the English wanted more than anything else, and they readily obeyed the king who gave it to them.

TWO REBELS—LAMBERT SIMNEL AND PERKIN WARBECK.
—There were two important Yorkist revolts in Henry's reign. *Margaret of Burgundy*, sister of Edward IV and widow of Charles the Bold, was still anxious to see her relations on the English throne. In 1487 she and the *Earl of Kildare* (the most powerful of the Irish chiefs) collected an army, which invaded England to put on the

throne a boy who, they said, was the *Earl of Warwick*, nephew of Edward IV. As a matter of fact, the earl was Henry's prisoner in the Tower of London, and the pretender's real name was *Lambert Simnel*. By parading Warwick through the streets, Henry soon showed the Londoners that Simnel was an impostor. But in those days news travelled slowly, and it was some time before the invading army was overtaken and defeated at *Stoke*, in Nottinghamshire.

The next rebellion was more dangerous. Again there was an impostor, *Perkin Warbeck*, who claimed to be Prince Richard, the younger of the two sons of Edward IV murdered by Richard III. This time Henry could not produce the real prince, and Warbeck remained dangerous for seven years, from 1492 to 1499, as he was supported by *James IV* of Scotland, as well as by Margaret of Burgundy. Warbeck was captured in 1497, and imprisoned in the Tower. But two years later, when there was another rebellion, Henry had both him and the Earl of Warwick executed, and for the rest of his reign he was free from pretenders.

HENRY VII AND IRELAND.—Both of these revolts had been supported by foreign powers—the first by Burgundy, in alliance with the Earl of Kildare, and the second by Burgundy in alliance with Scotland. Henry VII therefore set himself to prevent such outside interference in future. He tackled Ireland first. No English king had yet succeeded in ruling the Irish, who were still living in tribes, as they had done for many centuries, obeying only their tribal chieftains. Some of these chiefs (like the Earl of Kildare) had been made English nobles, but that did not make Ireland obey the English laws. The district round Dublin—called the *Pale*, and really protected from the rest of Ireland by a “paling”—had a parliament of its own, and made some pretence of following English customs; but even the Pale was much more Irish than English, and the remainder of the island paid no heed whatever to England and her kings. This part of Ireland Henry VII

could only leave to itself—though he made the Earl of Kildare *Lord Deputy* of Ireland in 1496, in the hope that he would keep Ireland and himself quiet. But in 1494 Henry made a real attempt to become ruler of the Pale and its parliament. In that year was passed a statute (known as *Poyning's Law*, after the man who was Lord Deputy at the time), which enacted that in future the Irish parliament should meet only when the king's council in England thought fit, and should pass only laws of which the English council approved.

SCOTLAND: JAMES IV AND HENRY VII —Scotland was more difficult to deal with. Since 1488 its king had been *James IV*, during whose reign Scotland advanced greatly. Rebels and overmighty subjects were put down, and the monarchy was made much stronger, the beginnings of a Scottish navy were built; the Scottish Church was made more important by the creation of an archbishop at Glasgow; and learning was encouraged by the introduction of printing and the foundation of a new university at Aberdeen. Henry VII had only just won his throne, whereas the Stewarts, the ancestors of James IV, had been kings of Scotland for over a century. Consequently, Henry had to treat James as at least his equal, and it was as equals that in 1503 the two kings made a treaty, by which James married Henry's daughter Margaret. At first this marriage made little difference to the relations of the two countries, and ten years later there was another war between them. But in the long run it proved very important indeed, since, a century later, a descendant of James and Margaret (another James Stuart) became the first ruler of the United Kingdom of England and Scotland.¹

HENRY VII AND SPAIN —This was not the only marriage by which Henry VII made his position more secure. In 1501 his eldest son Arthur had been married to *Catherine of Aragon*, daughter of *Ferdinand* and *Isabella*, the king

¹ See table on p. 257.

and queen of Spain. In fact, marriage was at that time a favourite method among the monarchs of Europe for making themselves more powerful. Ferdinand and Isabella themselves, by their marriage, had joined Ferdinand's kingdom of Aragon and Isabella's kingdom of Castile into a united kingdom of Spain. About the same time *Maximilian*, Archduke of Austria, had greatly increased his territories by marrying Mary, daughter of Charles the Bold of Burgundy; and in 1496 their son, *Philip of Burgundy*, joined all these lands to Spain and its possessions by his marriage with Joanna, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella—with the result that *Charles*,¹ the son of Philip and Joanna, inherited the greatest empire Europe had known for many a century.

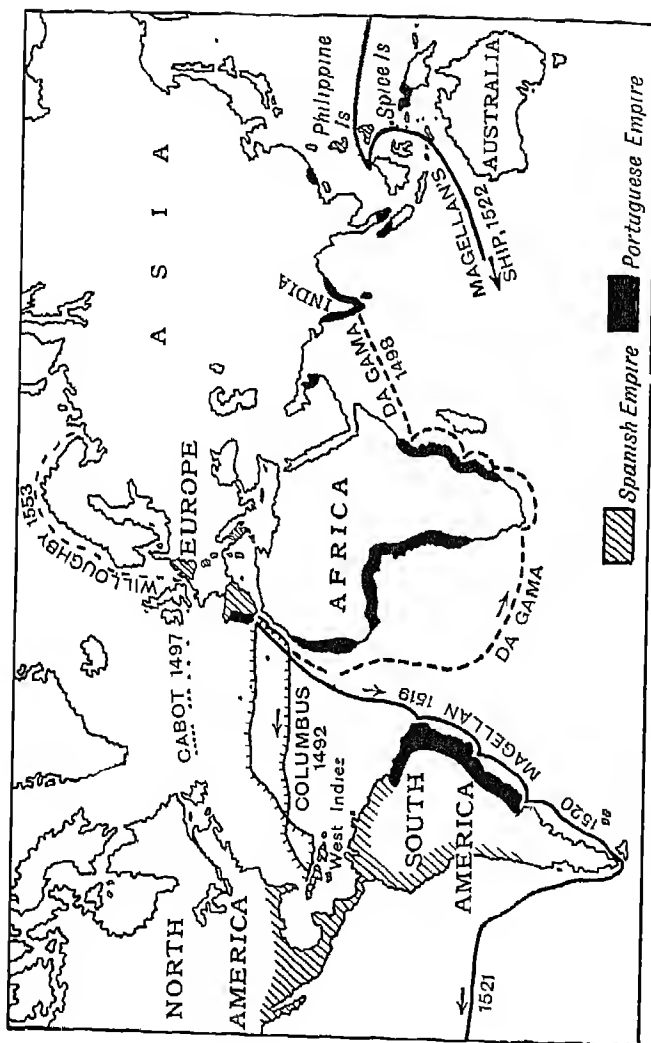
HENRY VII AND ENGLISH TRADE.—These alliances with foreign powers not only made Henry VII more important in Europe, but also assisted English trade. Henry, however, improved trade by more direct means than this. He fostered the growth of English shipping, by giving prizes to the builders of bigger ships on a new pattern. Moreover, in 1485, he passed a *Navigation Act*, which encouraged English shippers by permitting only English ships to carry wines to England from France. Five years later he made a treaty with Denmark, by which trade with the Baltic was thrown open to English merchants. In 1496 he concluded with Philip of Burgundy a more important treaty still, which so greatly benefited the trade between England and the Netherlands that it became known as the *Great Intercourse*. Ten years later Henry made yet another commercial treaty with the Netherlands, by which English merchants had to pay even less in customs duties to the Netherlands than by the *Great Intercourse* (though the duties paid in England by Flemish merchants remained the same), and which also allowed English merchants to import cloth into the Netherlands for the first time for many years. For these reasons the new

¹ This was the famous emperor, Charles V. See pp 189-192.

treaty was nicknamed by the Flemish merchants the *Evil* or *Grave Intercourse*, and it had serious consequences for Flanders, since it enabled the new English cloth manufacture to expand still further, at the expense of the old-established cloth manufacture of the Netherlands.

EXPLORATION AND DISCOVERY —There was another way, too, in which Henry fostered trade—by encouraging explorers to discover new trade routes. In 1453 Constantinople had been captured by the Turks, and as most of the old land routes to the East passed through that city, new routes had to be discovered. All through the fifteenth century the Portuguese had been trying to find a fresh way to India, round Africa, and one of their princes is always known as *Prince Henry the Navigator* from his interest in exploration. In 1486 a Portuguese, *Bartholomew Diaz*, succeeded in finding the southernmost point of Africa, which was named the Cape of Good Hope since it promised a new route to India, and twelve years later that hope was realised by *Vasco da Gama*, another Portuguese, who sailed to India in 1498 round Africa. Six years before this there had been a more important discovery still, when *Columbus*, sailing westwards, had reached America. The expenses of Columbus had been paid by Ferdinand of Spain, but for a time there had been a chance that Henry VII of England would have paid them instead; and in 1497 Henry did finance a voyage of discovery by *John Cabot*, which succeeded in reaching Newfoundland. It was long before England reaped any great advantage from this, but at least Henry had shown, by his interest, that he was fully alive to the vast trading developments which were taking place in his time.

HENRY VII AND THE NOBLES.—In spite of these activities in foreign affairs, however, Henry's chief difficulty throughout his reign was with the nobles. When Henry came to the throne he was an upstart whom the nobles regarded as no better than themselves, and for a time they claimed to control his council, as nobles had done for centuries when



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VOYAGES AND DISCOVERIES IN THE FIFTEENTH AND SIXTEENTH CENTURIES

they thought the king was too weak to resist them. Henry, however, new though he was to the throne, was too strong for them—especially as many of the chief nobles had been killed or captured during the Wars of the Roses. He therefore excluded nobles from his council, and trusted instead to the advice of middle-class men—*Foxe* and *Moreton* at the beginning of his reign, *Empson* and *Dudley* at the end. All of these were excellent men of business, and they looked so well after the affairs of the king that when he died he had more money in his Treasury than any previous king had ever had.

In other ways, too, the nobles were kept down. During the fifteenth century these “overmighty subjects” had maintained large bands of followers who wore their livery. These bands were really small private armies, and were a constant threat to the peace of the kingdom—and to justice as well as peace, since no jury dare condemn the leaders or members of them. In 1487, therefore, Henry passed a Statute forbidding this custom of *Livery and Maintenance*, and in the same year he established a law court to compel the nobles to obedience. This was the famous *Star Chamber*. The exact meaning of its name is not known for certain; but it was one of Henry’s chief weapons against the nobles; and it consisted only of counsellors of the king—men too important to be frightened even by nobles and their *retainers*, as their followers were called. In later years this court was misused by kings who wished to be despots, but under Henry VII and the other Tudors it did much to guarantee to the country a good strong government.

IMPORTANCE OF THE REIGN OF HENRY VII—Henry VII was not a very lovable man: he was stern, and, in his later years especially, very mean. But his meanness made him rich, with money enough to rule his kingdom well; and his sternness kept in order even the nobles, who had been responsible for most of the disorders of the fifteenth century. By 1509, when Henry died, England was safe from more civil wars; and his son Henry succeeded him

without dispute as Henry VIII, since he was a Yorkist as well as a Lancastrian.¹

Books for further reading :

GENERAL

R Francis CARDINAL WOLSEY (*Harrap*).

R Power THE AGE OF DISCOVERY (*Putnam*)

A W Steers THE STORY OF EARLY ENGLISH TRAVEL AND DISCOVERY (*Harrap*)

G E Mitton COLUMBUS (*Black*).

NOVELS

Rudyard Kipling REWARDS AND FAIRIES (*Macmillan*)

H. Rider Haggard FAIR MARGARET (*Hutchinson*).

Mrs H Clarke : A TRUSTY REBEL (*Nelson*)

SOURCE READINGS

Henry VII and his Subjects

(1) "At the request of the Commons of the land of Ireland be it ordained, enacted, and established, that no Parliament be holden hereafter in the said land, but at such season as the King's Lieutenant and Council there do first certify the King of the causes and considerations, and all such acts as seemeth to them should pass in the same Parliament, and such causes, considerations, and acts affirmed by the King and his Council to be good and expedient for that land. And if any Parliament be holden in that land hereafter, contrary to the form and provision aforesaid, it shall be deemed void and of none effect."

(2) "The King to Richard Gardener, mayor, and Thomas Eskrigg and Giles Dinkall, bailiffs, of the town of Lancaster

"Whereas we be credibly informed that our said town is in great run and decay by reason of such variances that have been amongst you by means of taking of Liveries and recognisances, and by retaining with several lords, gentlemen, and others, contrary to our laws, and by reason whereof ye, in time past, have been interrupted and prevented from correcting and reforming such trespassers, offenders, and misbehavings as have been used and attempted within our said town . . .

¹ Prince Arthur, Henry VII's eldest son, had died in 1502.

"We will, and straitly charge you, and every one of you, that ye do make proclamation in our name within our said town, commanding straitly that no manner of person, gentleman, or other (by oath, livery, sign, recognisance, or otherwise), shall cause assemblies of lords, gentlemen, or others, but only by our commission and commandment. And if any person or persons attempt to break this our pleasure and commandment, we will then that ye do certify us of his or their name or names, to the intent that we may provide for lawful and sharp punishment."¹

Exercises on the Source Readings

(i)

- 1 Paraphrase this passage into modern English
- 2 By what name is the statute from which (1) is taken usually known? What was its date and why was it passed?
- 3 Who was "the King's lieutenant" (a) at this date, (b) later? What do you know about these men?
- 4 To what part of Ireland would this statute apply? Give your reasons
- 5 What can you judge from this passage about the state of Ireland at the time?

(ii)

- 1 Paraphrase this passage into modern English.
- 2 Explain carefully what is said in this passage about (a) the conduct of nobles near Lancaster, (b) the conduct of the ordinary inhabitants of Lancaster, (c) the difficulty of keeping Lancaster in order
- 3 What steps did Henry VII take to remedy the kind of thing described in this passage?
- 4 In what way would the king "provide for lawful and sharp punishment"?
- 5 What is meant by *Bailiff*, *liveries* and *recognisances*, retaining?

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER I

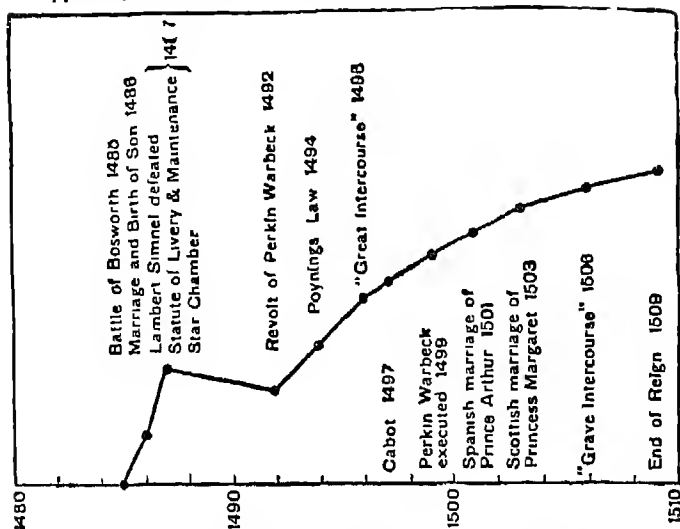
Charts and Maps

Make Time Charts to illustrate the following.

- 1 The reign of Henry VII
- 2 Scotland in the sixteenth century (to be completed later)
- 3 Ireland, 1485-1603 (to be completed later).

¹ From Pollard's *The Reign of Henry VII from Contemporary Sources* (both slightly simplified).

Copy into your exercise book the following graph.



GRAPH ILLUSTRATING THE RISE AND FALL OF THE POWER OF HENRY VII.

Draw a Diagram to show the descent of Charles V. Make a list of the lands he inherited.

Draw Maps to illustrate

1. Exploration and discovery in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries (shade differently the discoveries of different nations).
2. The possessions of (a) Charles the Bold of Burgundy, (b) the Emperor Maximilian of Austria, (c) Ferdinand of Aragon, (d) Isabella of Castile.

Questions

I

1. What do you know of the following: Lambert Simnel, Perkin Warbeck, Charles the Bold, Margaret of Burgundy, Earl of Kildare, Earl of Warwick, Poyning's Law, Emperor Maximilian, Ferdinand of Aragon, Isabella of Castile, Philip of Burgundy, Emperor Charles V, Prince Henry the Navigator, Bartholomew Diaz, Vasco da Gama, Columbus, Cabot, Foxe, Moreton, Dudley, Empson?

2. What do we mean by the following: The Pale, Lord Deputy of Ireland, Navigation Acts, the "Great Intercourse," the "Grave Intercourse," Livery and Maintenance, retainers, Star Chamber?

- 3 Why was the reign of James IV of Scotland important?
- 4 What were Henry VII's difficulties in Ireland, and how did he try to overcome them?
- 5 In what ways did Henry VII foster English trade and shipping?
- 6 By what different means did Henry VII keep down the discontented nobles?
- 7 Summarise the ways in which Henry VII gave England good government.
8. What new lands were discovered, and by whom, in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries?

II

- 1 For what reasons were there no Wars of the Roses after the accession of Henry VII?
- 2 Why was the Treaty of 1503 between Henry VII and James IV important (a) at once, (b) in later times?
- 3 With what different countries did Henry VII connect himself, and how, and why?
- 4 What important marriages took place in Europe between 1460 and 1510, and what results had they all?
5. How and why was England more important in Europe in 1509 than in 1485?
- 6 Henry VII has been described as "a wonder for wise men." How do you consider he showed his wisdom?

CHAPTER II

HENRY VIII AND WOLSEY

HENRY VIII came to the throne in 1509 with more advantages than any English king since Richard I—over three hundred years before. For the first time for many years there was no real danger of civil war, because the country had at last a ruler who was as much a Yorkist as a Lancastrian. In addition, Henry followed a king who had given to the country peace and prosperity, and had left to his son more money than any previous ruler of England.

Henry VIII himself was young, strong, athletic, and popular, and he was determined to make his mark in Europe—and this seemed easier, since his brother-in-law was king of Scotland, and his father-in-law was ruler of all Spain and the Indies. Finally, Henry inherited from his father one of the wisest of his advisers. This was *Thomas Wolsey*, who, like most of Henry VII's counsellors, belonged to the middle-class and not to the nobility, but who was soon to make himself one of the most famous men in Europe, and to make England one of the most important countries

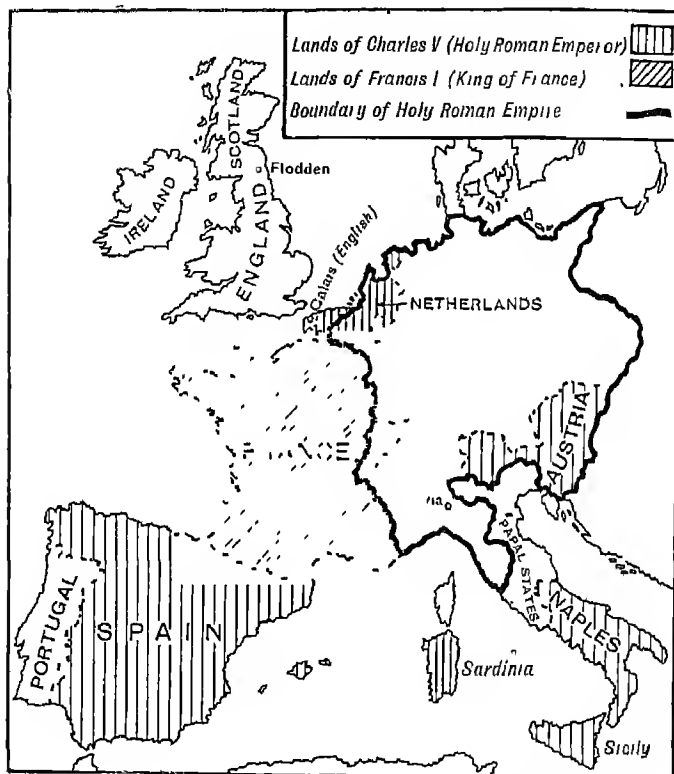
WAR WITH FRANCE AND SCOTLAND.—In spite of these promising circumstances, the reign began none too well. Wolsey was a clergyman—the last of the great clerics who ruled England for their kings; and Henry VIII himself was a very keen churchman. Both were anxious to please the Pope—Wolsey because he hoped to obtain promotion, and if possible to become Pope himself one day, and Henry because he knew that the Pope could help him to make England greater still. In 1511 the Pope (*Julus II*, one of the most warlike of all the Popes, who was much more interested in conquering lands for the Church than in controlling its religion) made an alliance (the *Holy League*) against the king of France, who had offended him. This seemed to Henry VIII to give him a splendid chance of making his name: by joining the Holy League he would please the Pope, damage France (which was still our chief foe), and perhaps conquer it as Henry V had done. But the affairs of the League were badly mismanaged. Henry did invade France, and defeat the French at the battle of *Guinegate* (which is often known as the “Battle of the Spurs” from the speed with which the French cavalry ran away); and in the same year (1513) another English army beat the Scots (who were following their old policy of invading England as soon as she was occupied with France) at the battle of *Flodden*. But nothing was gained by all this, and Henry found that he had spent all the savings of his father in his first, fruitless war.

WOLSEY IN POWER.—For some years after this England

was at peace, and Wolsey was much more truly the ruler of the kingdom than Henry. Every year his power and fortune increased. In 1514 he was made Archbishop of York—second in command of the Church in England, and he expected to become head of the English Church as soon as the Archbishop of Canterbury died. Next year he became a *Cardinal*—that is, a member of the central council of the Catholic Church at Rome, which elected the Popes, and at the same time Henry created him *Chancellor*, or chief minister. In addition he held two bishoprics and was abbot of a monastery and dean of a cathedral; and he took the salaries which were attached to all these offices. Finally, in 1518, he persuaded the Pope to appoint him *Papal Legate* in England—that is, the special ambassador of the Pope in this country, placed at the head of the English Church—superior even to the Archbishop of Canterbury.

FRANCE AND THE EMPEROR CHARLES V.—Having thus made himself supreme in England, Wolsey now prepared to play a prominent part on the Continent. At this time the two greatest living monarchs were struggling for the mastery of Europe. These were *Francis I*, king of France, and Charles, who, as we have seen (p. 181), inherited from his grandparents vast dominions, including Spain and the Indies (as America was then called), the Netherlands, Austria, Hungary, and parts of Italy. Charles's grandfather, Maximilian, who died in 1519, had been not only Archduke of Austria, King of Hungary, and Duke of Burgundy and the Netherlands, but also Holy Roman Emperor, and so ruler of the lands which are now called Germany. For nearly a century the *Hapsburgs* (the family to which Maximilian and Charles belonged) had got themselves elected Holy Roman Emperors, and if Charles did the same now it seemed as though France would be wholly surrounded by Hapsburg territories, and in great danger of conquest. For this reason Francis I put himself forward as a candidate for the Holy Roman Empire, but in 1519 Charles was elected Emperor as *Charles V* (the title by which he is always known); and war between him and Francis was bound to follow soon.

All the odds in this struggle seemed to be in favour of Charles, but really France had quite a good chance. Charles's possessions were vast, but they were wide apart, and therefore difficult to defend, and he ruled over so



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EUROPE IN THE TIME OF HENRY VIII OF ENGLAND

many different nations that they could not agree, and he was always having trouble with one or other of them. France, on the other hand, was compact and easy to protect; and the French, ever since the days of Joan of Arc, had been a united nation.

WOLSEY AND THE BALANCE OF POWER.—The two sides were therefore fairly evenly balanced, both sought the alliance of England, in order to make sure of winning; and so England is said to have kept the *Balance of Power* between them. In 1520 Henry VIII had meetings with both of the rivals—with Charles V in the Netherlands and with Francis near Calais, where the kings and nobles of both nations were so splendidly arrayed that the place became known as the “Field of the Cloth of Gold.” But Wolsey knew that his best plan was to follow the lead of the Pope—partly because by so doing he might get the Pope’s help in preparing the way for himself to become Pope later; and partly because, if he were to be Pope one day, he must do nothing beforehand which might weaken the papal power. In 1521 Charles decided to win the Pope’s support by putting down heresy in Germany; the Pope joined him against France in the same year; and so in 1522 Wolsey threw in his lot with the Emperor. This combination soon proved too much for Francis, who was completely defeated and captured at the battle of *Pavia* in Italy (1525).

Charles, however, had been too victorious; his allies began to fear that he would become too strong for them all. Moreover, Charles was now master of the whole of Italy, which the Pope wished to rule himself. Consequently, *Clement VII* (the new Pope) now joined France against the Emperor, and England under Wolsey did the same. The war dragged on with changing fortune for several more years, but meantime England had lost interest in the struggle, for Wolsey had quarrelled with the king, and Henry had determined to rule his kingdom himself, in a way very different from Wolsey’s.

THE FALL OF WOLSEY.—The quarrel began owing to a difference between Wolsey’s two masters, the king and the Pope, about Henry’s marriage with Catherine of Aragon. Henry had married her in 1509, though she was his brother Arthur’s widow, and the laws of the Church forbade such a marriage. The Pope of that time had, however, granted to Henry a special *dispensation* to marry Catherine, and for nearly twenty years he had been contented. But they had

no son—only a daughter, and Henry was afraid that England would be ruined if it passed under the rule of a queen instead of a king; and he feared, too, that this was the judgment of God upon him for marrying against the laws of the Church. In 1527, therefore, he declared his belief that the marriage with Catherine had never been really lawful, and he asked Wolsey to persuade the Pope to cancel it.

This placed Wolsey in an awkward dilemma. As the servant of the king, he could not afford to displease Henry; as ambassador of the Pope, he could not afford to displease Clement. But Clement was at this time a prisoner in the hands of Charles V, who had captured Rome in 1527; and as Charles was Catherine's nephew, Clement dared not offend him by declaring that his aunt's marriage was illegal. A second papal legate (Cardinal *Campeggio*) was sent by Clement to help Wolsey to decide the case, but *Campeggio* had instructions to cause delay, and as months passed without anything being settled, Henry's anger against Wolsey became stronger and stronger, until, in 1529, the great cardinal was dismissed. He was only fifty-five years old, but he was worn out with his work, and he retired to his Archbishopric of York—whose revenues he had been taking for fifteen years without visiting it once. But when, soon afterwards, he was summoned to London to be tried as a traitor to Henry, the disgrace and the journey proved too much for him, and he died at Leicester Abbey in November 1530.

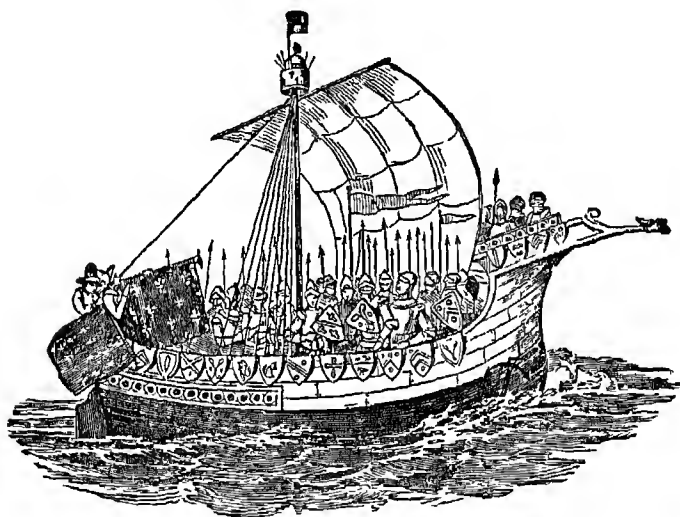
CAUSES OF WOLSEY'S FALL.—Thus ended the last of the great Church statesmen of the Middle Ages. Wolsey's fall was so complete because he had offended almost everybody. The nobles hated him because he was of low birth, and yet prouder than them all, Parliament disliked the way in which he had governed and taken taxes without consulting it; and though he was one of themselves even the clergy were glad to see him go, because he had made himself greater than the Archbishop of Canterbury, and had tried to prevent clergymen from holding many offices at once, although he did so himself. Above all, he had

made England and the king strong enough to do without him, and Henry was not the man to keep a servant who was no longer useful. Wolsey had made himself head of the State as well as of the Church in England; and his rule showed Henry that he, too, might rule them both by making himself head of the Church as well as of the State. When Wolsey was gone Henry never again allowed a minister to be more powerful than himself. From 1529 onwards Henry was easily the chief man in England, and it was not long before he was also the chief man in the English Church, as we shall read in a later chapter (Chapter IV, p. 212).

HENRY VIII AND THE NAVY.—One of the first signs of Henry's determination to control the government himself was his personal interest in the navy, which his father had improved, but which Wolsey had neglected. When Henry VIII came to the throne the royal navy contained not more than half a dozen ships, by the end of his reign the number had been increased to eighty-five. Moreover, these eighty-five were the finest fighting ships the world had ever seen. They were bigger and stronger than those of any other nation; and in addition, they were the first ships to be mounted with large guns in their hulls, so that they could fire a volley of shot, or *broadside*. This new type of ship, introduced by Henry VIII, did more than anything else to make England mistress of the seas in later times.

WALES AND IRELAND UNDER HENRY VIII.—There were other ways, too, in which Henry soon showed that he meant to be master of his dominions—not only of England, but of the rest of Britain as well. In 1536 Wales was for the first time properly united with England. Welsh members were admitted to the English Parliament, and Wales was divided into counties which were governed in future like the English shires. He even tried to bring Ireland under the control of the English laws. The Irish tribal leaders were made earls, and were encouraged to sit in the Irish Parliament, as English nobles did in the Parliament at Westminster. In 1541 an even more important

step was taken, when Henry proclaimed himself *King* (instead of Lord) of *Ireland*, and the Irish chiefs agreed to introduce into Ireland the English law with regard to land-owning, instead of the old Irish custom by which the land belonged equally to all members of the tribe. The Irish people, however, refused to accept this change, and the different ways of holding land in Ireland caused untold trouble in later centuries.

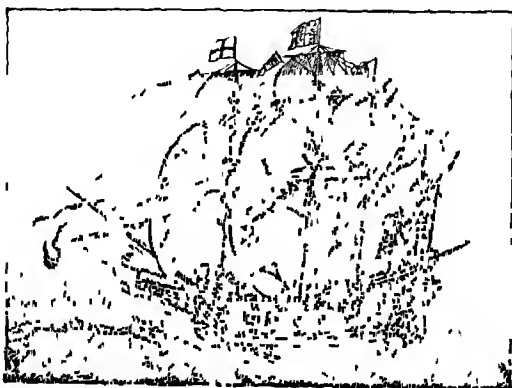


A FIGHTING SHIP OF THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

(Notice the bows built for ramming.)

HENRY VIII AND SCOTLAND—Henry was no more successful in controlling Scotland than Ireland. During the last five years of Henry's reign (1542–1547) there was constant war between England and Scotland. It began in 1542, when Henry sent an expedition to punish the Scots for raiding the English border in their old manner, and at the battle of *Solway Moss* the Scots were badly defeated. Three years later, however, the Scots won a victory at *Ancrem Moor* (1545). But by this time Henry had determined to win Scotland by marriage. *King*

James V of Scotland had died soon after the battle of Solway Moss, and the new monarch of Scotland was his baby daughter, *Mary Queen of Scots*. Henry now tried to force the Scots to marry their infant queen to his own boy Edward, so that their son might become king of both countries. The Scots, however, were too hostile to the English to agree, and Henry died without achieving this object. In the same year as Henry's death (1547), when the boy Edward was King Edward VI, the English made



THE " GREAT HARRY "

A fighting ship with the improvements made under Henry VII and Henry VIII (Notice the port-holes for guns)

another attempt to bring about the marriage, and the Scots were defeated at *Pinkie*. But again victory in battle brought no result. The girl queen Mary was sent to France to be out of the way of the English ; and within ten years from then she was the wife of a French and not an English prince.

Books for further reading

GENERAL

Sir S Lee GREAT ENGLISHMEN OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY (*Nelson*).

Rene Francis CARDINAL WOLSEY (*Harrap*)

G. Cavendish. THE LIFE OF CARDINAL WOLSEY

NOVELS

Halliwell Sutcliffe THE CRIMSON FIELD (*Ward Lock*).C M. Yonge THE ARMOURER'S PRENTICES (*Macmillan*)R H Forster THE ARROW OF THE NORTH (*Long*)A Manning THE HOUSEHOLD OF SIR THOMAS MORE (*Dent*).

SOURCE READING :

The Dying Speech of Wolsey(From the *Life of Wolsey*, by George Cavendish, one of Wolsey's attendants)

"I see the matter against me, how it is framed, but if I had served God so diligently as I have done the king, he would not have given me over in my grey hairs. Howbeit, this is the just reward that I must receive for my worldly diligence and pains that I had to do him service, only to satisfy his vain pleasure, not regarding my godly duty. Wherefore I pray you, with all my heart, to have me most humbly commended unto his royal Majesty, beseeching him in my behalf to call to his most gracious remembrance all matters proceeding between him and me from the beginning of the world unto this day, and the progress of the same, and most chiefly in the weighty matter now depending, then shall his conscience declare whether I have offended him or no. He is sure a prince of a royal courage, and hath a princely heart; and rather than he will either miss or want any part of his will or appetite he will put the loss of one-half of his realm in danger. For I assure you I have often kneeled before him in his privy chamber on my knees the space of an hour or two, to persuade him from his will and appetite, but I could never bring to pass to dissuade him therefrom. Therefore, Master Kingston, if it chance hereafter you to be one of his Privy Council, as for your wisdom and other qualities ye are meet to be, I warn you to be well advised and assured what matter ye put into his head, for ye shall never put it out again."

Exercises on the Source Reading

1. When and where were these words spoken? Write an account of the events of the previous twelve months
2. Do you think these are the exact words of Wolsey? Give reasons for your answer
3. What can you learn from this passage about (a) the character of Henry VIII, and his fitness to be a king, (b) the character of Wolsey, and his fitness to be chief minister of Henry VIII?
4. What does Wolsey mean by "the weighty matter now depending"? What do you know about this matter?

- 5 "The matter against me, how it is framed" Say carefully and exactly what Wolsey meant by these words.
- 6 "Master Kingston" was Constable of the Tower of London. Why do you suppose he was with Wolsey at this time?
- 7 What is meant by "privy chamber" and "Privy Council"?
- 8 Learn by heart as much of this passage as possible.

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER II

Charts and Maps

Make Time Charts to illustrate

- 1 The reign of Henry VIII (have separate columns for (a) war, (b) religious changes in England and Europe, (c) other events)
- 2 The life of Wolsey
- 3 Scottish history in the sixteenth century (continued from Chapter I).

Draw a Graph to show the rise and fall of Wolsey

Draw Maps of.

- 1 Great Britain, to illustrate the reigns of Henry VII and Henry VIII.
- 2 Europe, to show the possessions of Charles V and Francis I.

Questions

I

- 1 What do you know of the following Pope Julius II, the Holy League, "Battle of the Spurs," battle of Flodden, Francis I of France, Emperor Charles V, Field of the Cloth of Gold, battle of Pavia, Pope Clement VII, Cardinal Campeggio, battle of Solway Moss, battle of Ancrum Moor, battle of Pinkie?
- 2 What is meant by the following. Cardinal, papal legate, chancellor, bishop, abbot, dean, Hapsburgs, Holy Roman Empire, balance of power, papal dispensation?
- 3 Make a list, with dates, of the steps in Wolsey's advancement. Show clearly what was the importance of each promotion which he obtained.
- 4 Write an account of the life of Wolsey.
- 5 What changes did Henry VII and Henry VIII introduce into the Royal Navy, and why were these changes important?
- 6 In what ways did Henry VIII increase his power in (a) Wales, (b) Ireland?
- 7 In what different ways did Henry VIII try to obtain control over Scotland, and with what success?

II

- 1 In what ways was Henry VIII exceptionally fortunate at the beginning of his reign?
- 2 In what wars did Henry VIII engage in the first twenty years of his reign, and what were his reasons?

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3. Why were Francis I of France and the Emperor Charles V at enmity? What were the advantages and disadvantages of each in the struggle?
4. What part did Wolsey play in the affairs of Europe, and for what reasons?
5. Discuss whether the rule of Wolsey was good or bad for England.

CHAPTER III

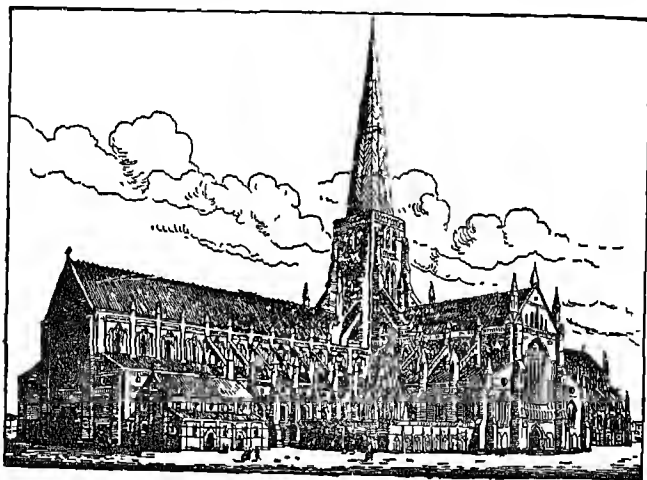
THE BEGINNING OF MODERN TIMES

THE NEW MONARCHY IN ENGLAND.—Henry VII was the last English king to obtain the throne by fighting for it and defeating the previous king in battle. By doing this he showed himself as a typical medieval noble with an army of his own, and with more love for himself than for his country. But in other ways Henry VII was less like the men of the Middle Ages and more like modern rulers. His careful government, for the benefit of the country rather than for the benefit of himself; his prudent marriage with Elizabeth of York, for England's sake and not for his own, the marriages of his children with foreign royalties, his frugal saving of money, of which he amassed more than any previous king; his care for trade and discovery, his suppression of the nobles, and his use of the Star Chamber against them—all these things proved him to be more modern than medieval, and made it impossible for any future noble to usurp the crown as he had done. The Tudor rule established by Henry VII and Henry VIII is often called the *New Monarchy*, so different was it from the rule of medieval kings.

THE NEW EUROPE AND THE NEW WORLD.—In all these things Henry VII and Henry VIII were not alone, for all Europe was at this time growing out of the Middle Ages into the Modern Age. As we have seen,¹ the rulers of Spain, of Austria, and of the Netherlands were like Henry VII in strengthening the power of themselves and their descendants by prudent marriages; Spain and France,

¹ Pages 180-181.

Spain took even more interest than Henry VII in discovery and trade, so that, during the sixteenth century, Spain became the greatest trading country in Europe, and new markets were found for her merchandise by men like *Magellan*, who led the first expedition to sail right round the world (1519-1522), and *Cortez*, who conquered Mexico for Spain at about the same time. All Europe, in fact, was becoming more interested in the New World, and it is not surprising that there began to spread over the Continent

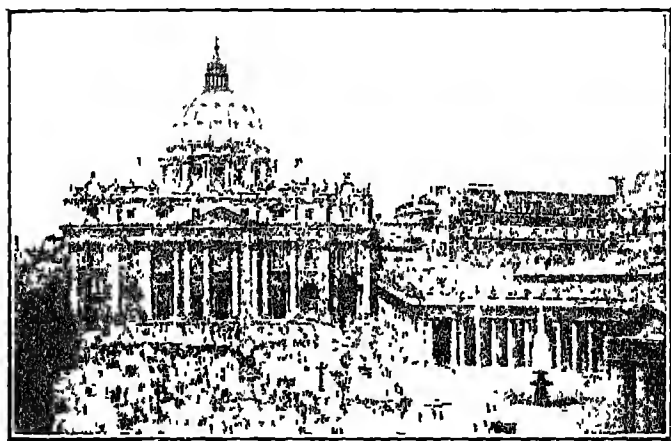


A GOTHIC CHURCH.
Old St. Paul's Cathedral

new ideas of all sorts, which soon made a great difference to men's ways of thinking and acting

THE NEW LEARNING —The discovery of fresh lands was not the only cause of these new ideas. Many of the "new" ideas were, in fact, very old. The New World itself was discovered by Columbus only because he believed what the Greeks had said, centuries before Christ, about the world being round. In the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, indeed, the ideas of the ancient Greeks became very popular —especially the ideas of the Greek scientists, mathematicians,

and philosophers. But the writings of these men could only be read by those who knew the Greek language; and so Greek became a favourite study of the scholars and students of Europe. At first Greek was studied chiefly by rich men, for they alone could afford to buy manuscripts, which were very expensive. But in the fifteenth century printing was invented, and in 1476 *Caxton* brought it to England, and from that time books became more plentiful and cheaper. Consequently the *New Learning* spread apace, and new



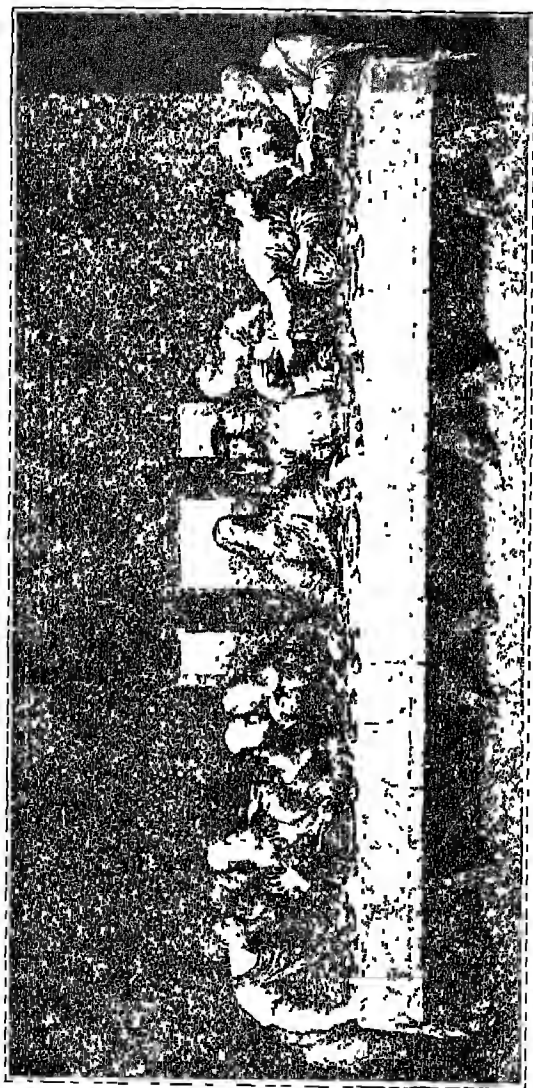
A RENAISSANCE CHURCH.

(St Peter's, Rome, built by Bramante, Raphael, Michelangelo, and others in the sixteenth century)

schools and colleges were established everywhere to teach it. Some of our best-known English schools and colleges date from this time: Winchester College was founded in 1382, Eton in 1440, Saint Paul's School in 1515; and in this latter year, too, was founded Manchester Grammar School, which is now the largest day school in England, but which was only one of many grammar schools founded in the sixteenth century. This same period also saw the establishment of most of the colleges at Oxford and Cambridge.

THE NEW LEARNING IN ENGLAND.—In England the chief leaders of the New Learning were the three friends Erasmus, Colet, and More. *Erasmus* was a Dutchman, but he lived much in England, and became a professor at Cambridge. His chief work was the publication (in 1516) of a Greek New Testament as free from medieval errors as he could make it. *Colet* was Dean of Saint Paul's Cathedral (it was he who founded Saint Paul's School in 1515), and he made himself famous by lecturing on Saint Paul's Epistles, and showing how they had been misunderstood by the churchmen of the Middle Ages. Unlike Erasmus and Colet, *Sir Thomas More* was not a clergyman, but a lawyer and a politician, but he was a scholar as well, and his book *Utopia*, published in 1516, was written to expose the evils of the time, and to contrast them with the happy condition of things as More painted them in his imaginary state of Utopia ("nowhere").

THE NEW ART OF THE RENAISSANCE.—So great an influence did the New Learning have upon the people of Europe in those days that it is often called the *Renaissance* or "New Birth." But it was not in learning alone that Europe was being born again. The ancient Greeks had not only written great books, they had built great buildings and carved great statues, and their buildings and sculptures are still among the most beautiful the world has ever produced. The Renaissance turned men's minds to the art of the Greeks, as well as to their teaching; and men like *Michelangelo*, of Florence in Italy, rivalled both the sculpture and the architecture of ancient Greece. Architecture itself changed completely during the Renaissance. Gothic architecture went out of fashion, and its place was taken by buildings modelled on that of the ancients, and known as either *Classical* or *Renaissance architecture*. Instead of the pointed doors and windows of Gothic architecture, round or flat-topped ones, like those of the Greeks and Romans, were used, and instead of leaving the stones to show exactly how they supported the building (as the Gothic style had done), the Renaissance architects covered the supporting stones with ornamental decorations of all



A WALL-PAINTING OF THE RENAISSANCE "THE LAST SUPPER"

by Leonardo da Vinci.

Compare this with the medieval wall-painting on page 110

sorts, copied from the buildings of the ancient world. Italy was the country where the Renaissance began, and where the New Learning and the new architectural style first came into fashion; and this new style is often called *Palladian*, from the name of the chief Italian architect of the time, *Palladio*. In England Renaissance architecture did not fully develop till the seventeenth century; but then it produced, in *Sir Christopher Wren*, a Renaissance architect almost as great as Michelangelo himself.

At the same time painting changed even more. The paintings of the Middle Ages had been lifeless or unreal, and they were nearly all about religious subjects; whereas the painters of the Renaissance tried to make their pictures as true to life as possible, and as time went on they grew fonder and fonder of subjects which had no connection at all with religion, though at first they contented themselves with painting religious pictures in the new manner. The paintings of *Raphael*, *Michelangelo*, and *Leonardo da Vinci* in Italy, and of the portrait-painter *Holbein* in Germany and England, were really lifelike; and in many ways the work of these great artists has never been surpassed.

THE INFLUENCE OF THE RENAISSANCE.—Michelangelo, as we have seen, was sculptor, painter, and architect; Leonardo (the painter of the picture known as "The Last Supper"), who ended his days in France as "King's painter, engineer, and architect, and chief mechanician to the State," was also a sculptor, and he even tried to invent an aeroplane—four hundred years ago! In fact, one of the characteristics of the Renaissance was that it produced all-round men—like our own King Henry VIII, for example, who was a skilful athlete, a musician who composed fine anthems, a learned student who wrote a book about the Catholic Church, a collector of pictures, a patron of architecture, and a close student of naval warfare. The Renaissance seemed to make men keen on getting the most out of their lives, and on finding things out for themselves. Consequently they began to investigate things which had been taken for granted all through the Middle Ages. This led to their abandoning many medieval beliefs—including,

for example, the belief that the sun moved daily round the earth. It was the scientist *Copernicus* (1473-1543) who first showed that day and night are due to the movement of the earth, not of the sun. Discoveries such as this led to doubts about other beliefs—even those of the Catholic Church—and so helped to bring about the movement which we call the *Reformation*.

THE REFORMATION—The Reformation is so called because it began as an attempt to reform the Catholic Church—though it ended by splitting it up, and so destroying the chief bond which had held Christendom together in the Middle Ages. We have seen already that in many ways the Church needed reforming. The clergy were often ignorant and idle—indeed, during the reign of Henry VIII in England a law had to be passed compelling them to preach at least four sermons a year! Even the better clergy had many faults, one of the chief of which was *pluralism*—that is, the practice of holding too many livings at once, like Wolsey, who was archbishop, bishop, abbot, dean, and many other things at the same time, though he did the work of hardly any of his offices. The monks, too, who had at one time been the best churchmen in Christendom, had in some places become careless, living idly on the great revenues which benefactors had bequeathed to them, instead of doing their duty as good Catholics. Above all, there had been Popes who had been unworthy of their office as heads of the Church. In the days of the Papal Schism (*see* p. 145) men's confidence in the Papacy had been badly shaken. And now, at the beginning of the sixteenth century, one or two Popes showed hardly any interest in their religious work, and tried instead to make themselves wealthy, and to make the Papal States a powerful country.

NEW CHURCHES IN EUROPE—In circumstances such as these many men ceased to regard the Popes as the religious leaders of Christendom. Back in the days of the Papal Schism, Wycliffe had questioned their right to be its leaders; and now the New Learning was throwing so much fresh light on the Bible and the early history of the

Catholic Church that the old doubts were renewed more strongly than ever. Men like Erasmus, Colet, and More had done their share towards this, without leaving the Church, but other scholars were unable to remain members of it. Chief among these was *Martin Luther*, a professor at the new university at Wittenberg, in Germany. His studies and teaching had led him to think that it was less important, in religious matters, to obey the Church and the Popes, than to understand and believe the truth; belief, he said, was the one thing necessary to salvation, and not obedience to the authority of the Church. In 1517 Luther published these ideas of his at Wittenberg, and so began the Reformation in Germany. At first he had no intention of breaking away from the Catholic Church, but the Pope opposed and excommunicated him, and before long he founded a new sect, known as *Protestants*, because they protested against the authority of the Pope in Germany. This Lutheran Church is still the chief Church in Germany, and also in Denmark, Norway, and Sweden.

Before Luther died (in 1546) other reformers had followed his example in other countries, in France and Switzerland. *John Calvin* established Churches whose doctrines (known as *Calvinism*) were stricter and more revolutionary than those of Luther. Although Calvinism failed to keep its hold in France, it succeeded in converting other lands, and under Calvin's follower, *John Knox*, Scotland became thoroughly Calvinist about the middle of the century. In England the doctrines of both Luther and Calvin remained unpopular for a long time. Nevertheless, the Reformation began in England many years before the death of Henry VIII—though the English Reformation was from beginning to end very different from that in any other European country.

Books for further reading

GENERAL

- W. H. Hudson THE STORY OF THE RENAISSANCE (*Harrap*).
 S. Dark THE RENAISSANCE (*Hodder and Stoughton*).
 E. Ross MARTIN LUTHER (*Harrap*).
 * Sir S. Lee GREAT ENGLISHMEN OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY (*Nelson*).

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F. Wood FAMOUS VOYAGES OF GREAT DISCOVERERS (*Harrap*)

NOVELS

Charles Reade THE CLOISTER AND THE HEARTH.

George Eliot ROMOLA

Marjorie Bowen THE CARNIVAL OF FLORENCE (*Metbuen*)

John Buchan THE PATH OF THE KING (*Nelson*)

Mary Johnston ADMIRAL OF THE OCEAN SEA (*Thornton Butterworth*).

SOURCE READING

Renaissance Artists and their Patrons

(From *The Lives of the most Excellent Painters, Sculptors, and Architects*, by Giorgio Vasari, a sixteenth-century painter and architect.)

"Federigo II, Duke of Mantua, in passing through Florence on his way to make obeisance to Clement VII, saw over a door in the house of the Medici that portrait of Pope Leo between Cardinal Giulio de' Medici and Cardinal de' Rossi, which the most excellent Raphael had formerly painted, and, being extraordinarily pleased with it, he resolved, being a man who delighted in pictures of such beauty, to make it his own. And so, when he was in Rome, and the moment seemed to have come, he asked for it as a present from Pope Clement, who courteously granted his request. Thereupon, orders were sent to Florence, to Ottaviano de' Medici, that he should have it packed up and taken to Mantua. This matter was very displeasing to the magnificent Ottaviano, who would never have consented to deprive Florence of such a picture, and he marvelled that the Pope should have given it up so readily. However, he answered that he would not fail to satisfy the Duke, but that, since the frame was bad, he was having a new one made, and when it had been gilded he would send the picture with every possible precaution to Mantua. This done, Messer Ottaviano, in order to 'save both the goat and the cabbage,' as the saying goes, sent privately for Andrea del Sarto, and told him how the matter stood, and how there was no way out of it but to make an exact copy of the picture, with the greatest care, and send it to the Duke, secretly retaining the one by the hand of Raphael. Andrea then, having promised to do all in his power and knowledge, caused a panel to be made similar in size and in every respect

and painted it secretly in the house of Messer Ottaviano. And to such purpose did he labour that when it was painted even Messer Ottaviano, for all his understanding in matters of art, could not tell the one from the other, nor distinguish the real and true picture from the copy; especially as Andrea had counterfeited even the spots of dirt, as they were in the original. And so, after they had hidden the picture of Raphael, they sent the one by the hand of Andrea, in a similar frame, to Mantua; at which the Duke was completely satisfied, and above all because the painter Giulio Romano, a disciple of Raphael, had praised it, failing to detect the trick."

Exercises on the Source Reading

1. What do you know about the following. Raphael, Clement VII, the Medici?
2. Find out as much as you can about Andrea del Sarto, and write an account of his life.
3. Andrea del Sarto is often known as "the faultless painter"; what can you find in this story to justify the title?
4. What can you learn from this story about (a) art collecting during the Renaissance, (b) the character of the Duke of Mantua, (c) the character of Ottaviano de' Medici, (d) the character of Andrea del Sarto, (e) the state of Italy in the sixteenth century?
5. What arguments could you use in favour of (a) believing, (b) disbelieving, this story?
6. Why was one of the longest books ever written on art compiled in the sixteenth century?

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER III

Charts and Maps

Make Time Charts to illustrate

1. The changes in Europe, 1400-1600 (have separate columns for (a) discoveries of new lands; (b) the New Learning; (c) art; (d) religion)
2. The Reformation in Europe

Make a Graph to show progress in Europe, 1400-1600

Draw a Map of Europe to show the states which became Protestant as a result of the Reformation (shade differently those which became Roman Catholic again later).

Questions

1

1. What do you know of the following. Magellan, Cortes, Cartton, Erasmus, Colet, Sir Thomas More, *Utopia*, Michelangelo, Palladio, Sir Christopher Wren, Raphael, Leonardo da Vinci, Holbein, Copernicus?

2 What do we mean by the following. Renaissance, Reformation, Protestant, Calvinism, Lutheranism, the New Monarchy, the New Learning, Palladian, pluralism, Papal Schism?

3. What changes took place in learning in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries?

4 Make a list of as many schools as you can find which were founded in the fifteenth or sixteenth centuries, and give the date of foundation, and, if possible, the name of the founder of each

4 What changes took place during the Renaissance in (a) painting, (b) architecture?

5 Write an account of the lives of Martin Luther, John Calvin, John Knox

6 Make a list, with dates, of as many buildings as possible in your district which were built (a) in the fifteenth century, (b) in the sixteenth century. What differences can you notice between the two groups of buildings?

II

1 What do you understand by the name "the New Monarchy"? Why is this a good name for the monarchy of (a) the Tudors, (b) other sixteenth-century monarchs in Europe?

2. In what ways did the Catholic Church need reforming at the end of the Middle Ages?

3. Discuss the suitability of the following names. New Learning, Renaissance, Reformation

4 Show clearly the connection between the Renaissance and the Reformation

5 In what ways do you consider that Europe changed for (a) the better, (b) the worse, during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries?

CHAPTER IV

THE REFORMATION IN ENGLAND

THE New Learning, as we have seen, soon found its way to England, and the new ideas about religion were not long in following. The Lollards (there were still a good many of them left in the country) welcomed these new ideas because they were so much like the teachings of Wycliffe; and they, with many who had never been Lollards, readily became Lutherans. Still more people, though they hesitated to accept Luther's teachings at once, distrusted more than ever the doctrines and authority of the Catholic

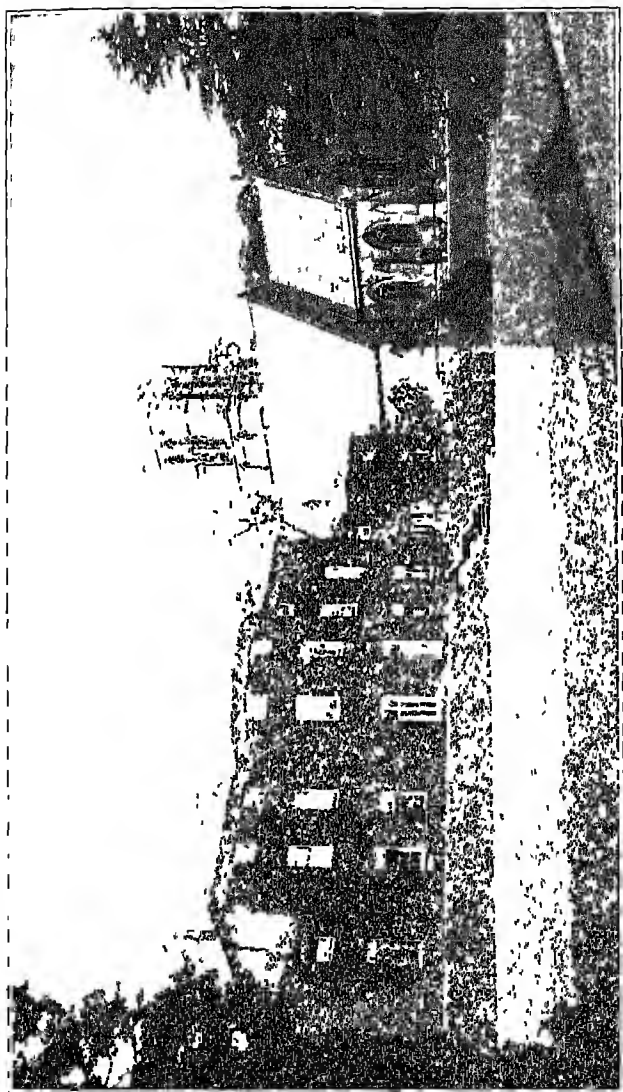
Church ; so that by the time of Wolsey's fall England was ripe for a religious reformation.

HENRY VIII AND THE POPE—Yet the Reformation in England, when it came, was not at first religious. It was started, not (as in Germany and France) by famous scholars and teachers, but by the king himself. Henry, however, considered himself a good Catholic, and when Luther's teachings began to spread he had written a book to prove him wrong¹. Consequently, it was not the teaching of the Church which Henry tried to alter, but the power of the Pope in England ; and this was only because of his private quarrel with the Pope over the divorce which he wanted the Pope to arrange.² Pope Clement VII, as we have seen, dared not offend the Emperor Charles V by doing what Henry wished, and he proclaimed Henry's marriage with Catherine of Aragon to be quite legal. But Henry was never the man to allow his will to be thwarted, and he soon determined to obtain his divorce in spite of the Pope.

THE REFORMATION PARLIAMENT (1529-1536).—At first, however, he tried to frighten the Pope into agreement. In 1529 he summoned Parliament in order to obtain its help in his struggle with the Papacy, and he persuaded this Parliament to pass so many Acts against the papal authority, and at last break England away from the Roman Church, that it is usually known as the *Reformation Parliament*. One of its measures was an *Act of Annates* (1532). *Annates* were the first year's revenues of newly-appointed bishops and other clergymen, and hitherto they had had to be paid to the Pope. By the Act of Annates Henry threatened to take these "first fruits" for himself—though he hoped that the Pope would give way and make this unnecessary. But Clement held out, and so, in 1533, Henry made *Thomas Cranmer* Archbishop of Canterbury, and persuaded him to declare Catherine's marriage illegal. Catherine, however, could maintain that the archbishop had no power to do

¹ It was this book which earned for the English king the title of "Defender of the Faith" (*fides defensor*), which still appears on all our coins.

² See pp 190-192



(Photo H J Sumner, Southwell)

THURGARTON PRIORY, NOTTINGHAMSHIRE.

Once a monastery now a house

this; and to prevent her from appealing to the Papal court at Rome to have her case tried there, Henry made Parliament pass an *Act of Appeals*, which declared it illegal in future to appeal to any foreign ruler against the decisions of an English court. Still Clement refused to give way, and so in 1534 Henry had himself proclaimed "only Supreme Head in earth of the Church of England, called *Anglicana Ecclesia*." By this *Act of Supremacy* the Church of England broke right away from the Roman Catholic Church; and those who refused to admit that the king, and not the Pope, was now head of the English Church, were beheaded as traitors. Among the first to be executed in this way were Sir Thomas More, and *Fisher*, the Bishop of Rochester (1535).

THOMAS CROMWELL.—By this time a new man had come to the front as Henry's chief adviser. This was *Thomas Cromwell*, an old servant of Wolsey's. It was he who recommended Henry to do away with the monasteries, which were very much opposed to the new changes in the Church. Certainly there was something to be said for reforming the monasteries, if not for destroying them altogether. They were no longer the chief seats of learning in Europe; in this their place had been taken by the new Universities. Most of the monasteries had had too much wealth left to them, and many monks lived in idleness. Nevertheless they were splendid places, offering free lodging to travellers as of old, giving away much in charity to the poor, and employing many workers on their vast estates. No amount of good points, however, could save them from Henry once he was decided against them. In 1536 the smaller monasteries (those with an income of less than £200 a year¹) were dissolved, and within the next three or four years the remainder shared their fate. Some of their wealth was used to improve the navy, and a little to found schools; but most went into the pockets of the king and his favourite nobles. In 1536 there was a rebellion in the North of England, demanding that the monasteries should be restored (for this reason it was called the

¹ This would be worth at least £5,000 of our money.

Pilgrimage of Grace); but it was easily put down, and Henry established a special *Council of the North* to keep those more distant parts of the country in order.

THE "MIDDLE WAY" OF HENRY VIII.—By this time Henry had done so much against the Pope that Cromwell (who was himself in favour of the Reformation) tried to persuade him into an alliance with the Duke of Cleves, one of the Protestant princes of Germany; and Henry went so far as to marry the Duke's sister Anne. But Anne was ugly, and Henry divorced her almost at once; and Cromwell suffered the usual fate of those who offended the king, by being executed in the same year (1540).

Henry, in fact, was now resolved to go no farther along the Protestant road. Already, in 1539, he had showed that, however much he might oppose the Pope, he was determined to keep England as "Catholic" as ever; for in that year the *Statute of Six Articles* made it illegal to deny the chief Catholic doctrines. For the rest of his reign Henry followed a "middle way" between the old Catholics and the new reformers, like the latter, he denied the authority of the Pope, and he executed as traitors all who refused to recognise himself as the head of the English Church. But he stuck to Catholic doctrines and burned as heretics those who denied them. Thus when he died (in 1547) England was neither wholly Catholic nor wholly Protestant.

THE REFORMATION UNDER EDWARD VI (1547-1553).—As soon as his son Edward VI (a boy of nine) came to the throne all this was altered. The regent (or *Protector*) was the young king's uncle, the *Duke of Somerset*, who was himself a very keen reformer. Under him England speedily adopted Protestant doctrines; and in 1549 the Catholic books of Latin prayers were replaced by a prayer book in English. In the same year Somerset fell from power (chiefly because he had offended his fellow-nobles), and the *Duke of Northumberland* took his place as Protector for the rest of the reign. Northumberland was determined to make England even more thoroughly Protestant than Somerset had intended—partly because he thought the

new religion was best, but chiefly in order to keep from the throne the Princess Mary (the Catholic daughter of Catherine of Aragon), who was to succeed on the death of the ailing Edward VI. In 1552 Northumberland issued a second prayer book, which was much more Protestant than that of 1549, and which contained forty-two articles of belief which would have made the English Church wholly Calvinistic. In 1553 Edward VI died, and Northumberland tried to force the country to accept as Queen the *Lady Jane Grey*, who was married to his son Dudley and who had some slight claim to the crown. But the people refused to support him, and his plot failed, he was



AN ENGLISH COIN OF QUEEN MARY AND KING PHILIP

himself executed, and Lady Jane was thrown into prison. Mary was queen for the next five years (1553-1558), and she immediately set about joining England to the Roman Catholic Church once again.

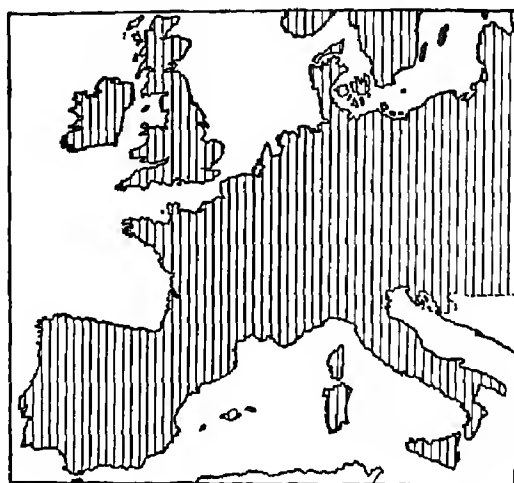
THE REIGN OF MARY (1553-1558) — During the first year of her reign Mary mortally offended her people in two different ways. First of all (in 1554) she married *Philip II*, who became king of Spain in 1556, and for the rest of Mary's reign, as Englishmen feared, England was little better than one of the many possessions of Spain. Moreover, it appeared as though, on Mary's death, England would really have a Spaniard for its king, and so cease to be an important state in Europe. This marriage was so unpopular that in the same year a rebellion was led by

Sir Thomas Wyatt to protest against it; but most of the people, however much they disliked the marriage, were not ready to fight against their queen, and the rebellion was put down. Wyatt was executed, and so, too, was Lady Jane Grey (though she had nothing to do with revolt), since Mary feared that she might be the cause of other Protestant plots against her.

THE COUNTER-REFORMATION IN ENGLAND AND EUROPE. —The second way in which Mary offended her subjects was by hurriedly making England Roman Catholic again. She was herself a devout Catholic, and her husband, Philip, was making himself the leader of what is called the *Counter-Reformation*—that is, the attempt of the Catholic Church to win back Europe to itself. For, by the middle of the century, there was taking place a real reformation of the Catholic Church. The Popes were now better men than had ruled the Church for centuries; monks and clergy, too, were leading busier and better lives, and at the *Council of Trent* (a general council of the chief Catholic clergy of Europe, which lasted from 1545 till 1563) the Church made its teachings more moderate, but also more certain, than they had been for a long time.

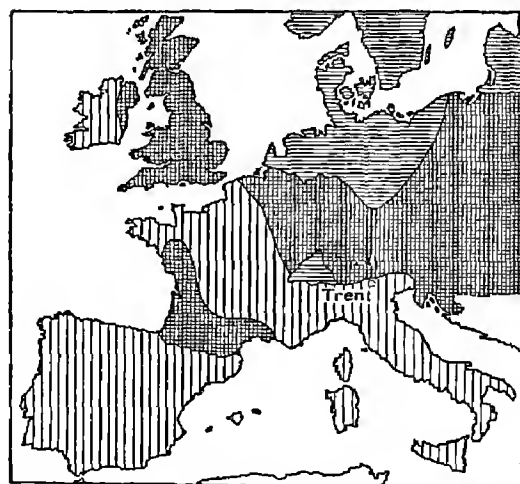
Mary came to the English throne while the Council of Trent was still in existence; and so she felt that, in trying to bring England back to the Pope, she was joining in the finest religious movement of the time. But the English had never liked the Pope, even in the Middle Ages, and although the Pope was made Supreme Head of the English Church again in 1554, so many of her subjects refused to acknowledge the Papal power that Mary felt compelled to persecute these Protestants. In the next three years about three hundred people were burned to death at the stake, including *Cranmer*, the Archbishop of Canterbury; *Redley*, the Bishop of London; and *Latimer*, one of the greatest preachers of the day, who had resigned the Bishopric of Worcester because he felt himself to be too Protestant for the slow pace at which the English Reformation was proceeding.

Most of the Protestants who were burnt for opposing



||||| Roman Catholic

CATHOLIC EUROPE IN 1500.

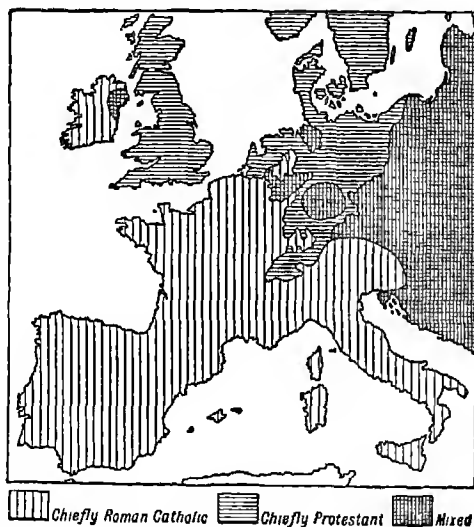


||||| Chiefly Roman Catholic ||||| Chiefly Protestant ||||| Mixed

EUROPE DURING THE "REFORMATION"

(about 1550)

Mary's Catholic changes were humble people, but the queen met with even stronger opposition from the rich. Many of the wealthiest men in England had obtained their wealth from Henry VIII when he dissolved the monasteries; the monastery lands became the estates, and the monasteries themselves became the houses, of country gentlemen—and for this reason many country houses are still called "abbeys" or "priors." Nothing could persuade these country gentlemen to give up their new possessions, so that not



EUROPE AFTER THE "COUNTER-REFORMATION"
(about 1600)

even Mary dared to restore the monasteries in England. It was because so many men felt that they might lose their lands if England became Catholic again that the Counter-Reformation had little chance in England. Most Englishmen were glad when (in 1558) Mary died—not only because she made the country fight for Philip II against France, and lose Calais, our last French possession, in 1558, but also because they felt that her sister Elizabeth would make a better queen and find a better settlement of the religious problem.

THE ELIZABETHAN SETTLEMENT OF RELIGION —The settlement of religion was Elizabeth's first task on her accession in 1558. Unlike Mary, she was not herself very religious, so that she felt free to follow her father's "middle way" in religious matters. Two Acts of Parliament passed in the first year of her reign (1559) settled that England should be neither wholly Catholic nor wholly Protestant. The *Act of Supremacy* once more abolished the power of the Pope in England, and declared Elizabeth to be the head of the English Church (though she wisely called herself "Supreme Governor," and not "Supreme Head," of the Church, so that as few Catholics as possible should be offended), and the *Act of Uniformity* compelled all the clergy to accept and use the same prayer book. This Elizabethan prayer book was in English; and its Communion Service was so worded that both sincere Catholics and sincere Protestants could feel justified in using it. Four years later (1563) the Thirty-nine Articles of belief in the English Church were issued. These, too, like the new prayer book, were moderate enough to satisfy most Catholics and most Protestants. Elizabeth meant her "middle way" to please all but the extremists among her subjects. And it was so successful in doing so that neither Elizabeth's excommunication by the Pope in 1570, nor an invasion of England in 1580 by *Jesuits* (a very ardent society of Catholic missionaries founded by *Loyola* in 1540), shook her people from their allegiance to her. Long before the end of her reign her new moderate English Church was quite safe and popular.

Books for further reading

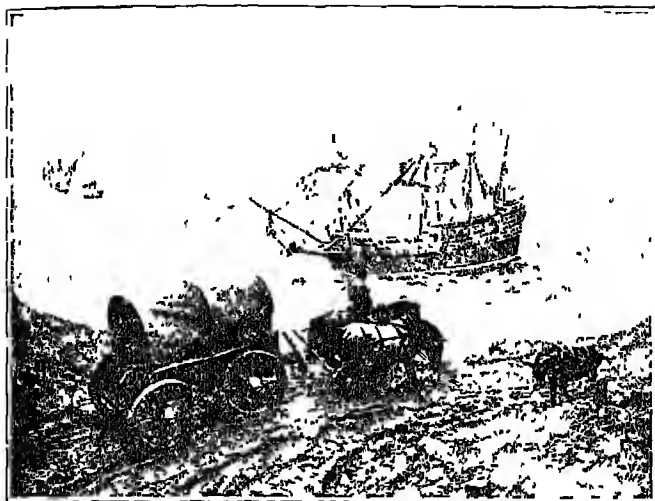
GENERAL

- S Dark QUEEN ELIZABETH (*Hodder and Stoughton*).
B Marshall QUEEN ELIZABETH (*Harrap*)

NOVELS

- W Harrison Ainsworth THE TOWER OF LONDON.
H C Bailey THE LONELY QUEEN (*Methuen*)

- R. H. Benson . BY WHAT AUTHORITY (*Pitman*)
 R H Benson . COME RACK, COME ROPE ! (*Hutchinson*).
 A. T Sheppard BRAVE EARTH (*Cape*)
 J Knupe THE WATCH-DOG OF THE CROWN (*Lane*).
 I L Plunket THE HIDDEN CHALICE (*S P C K*).



TRANSPORT IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

Wagons for the roads , packmule for rough tracks , ships with many
 sails and high hulls

(For transport in other times, see pages 2, 4, 18, 147, 394, 436)

(Reproduced by permission of the Director of the Science Museum, South Kensington)

SOURCE READING

The Head of the English Church

“ An act restoring to the Crown the ancient jurisdiction over the State, ecclesiastical and spiritual, and abolishing all foreign power repugnant to the same.

“ Whereas, in the time of the reign of your most dear father, of worthy memory, King Henry VIII, divers good laws and statutes were made and established for the extinguishment and putting away of all usurped and foreign powers and authorities out of this your realm, by reason whereof we, your most humble and obedient subjects, from the twenty-fifth year of the reign of your said dear father, were continually kept in good order . .

until . . . the first and second years of the reigns of the late King Philip and Queen Mary . . .

"May it please your Highness that it may be further enacted that no foreign prince, person, or prelate, shall exercise any manner of power, jurisdiction or privilege, spiritual or ecclesiastical, within this realm . . .

"And for the better observation and maintenance of this act, . . . all and every [clergyman and official] shall make, take and receive a corporal oath upon the Evangelist, . . . that is to say .

"I, A B, do utterly testify and declare in my conscience, That the Queen's Highness is the only Supreme Governor of this realm, and of all other her Highness's dominions and countries, as well in all spiritual or ecclesiastical things or causes, as temporal, and that no foreign prince, person, prelate, state or potentate, hath or ought to have any jurisdiction, power, superiority, pre-eminence or authority, ecclesiastical or spiritual, within this realm." ¹

Exercises on the Source Reading

1. What was the name and date of this Act?
2. Write notes on the following: King Philip, prelate, jurisdiction, Evangelist, spiritual, ecclesiastical, temporal
3. Why is this called "an act *restoring* to the Crown the *ancient* jurisdiction," rather than "giving" a "new" jurisdiction?
4. What does the statute mean by "all usurped and foreign powers and authorities"?
5. Make a list of the "divers good laws and statutes" which were made in the time of Henry VIII
6. What were "the twenty-fifth year of the reign of your said dear father" and "the first and second years of the reigns of the late King Philip and Queen Mary"? Why are these dates specially mentioned?
7. In what sense was it correct to apply the term "the late" to (a) King Philip, (b) Queen Mary?
8. Paraphrase carefully and accurately (a) the third paragraph of this passage, (b) the form of oath (paragraph 5)
9. Explain fully and carefully the importance of the title "Supreme Governor" in the oath

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER IV

Charts and Maps

Make Time Charts to illustrate the following:

1. Movements for religious reform, 1350-1550.
2. The Reformation in (a) England, (b) Europe, 1500-1600
3. The Counter-Reformation

¹ From *Statutes of the Realm* (abridged).

Draw Graphs to show the rise and fall, 1500-1575, of ·

1. The reforming movement in England
2. The reforming movement in Europe
3. The power of the Pope in England
4. The power of the Pope in Europe.

Draw a Diagram showing the relation to the Roman Church of (a) the Church of England, (b) other European churches.

Questions

I

1. What do you know of the following Lollards, Wycliffe, Lutherans, Calvinists, Pope Clement VII, the Reformation Parliament, Cranmer, Act of Appeals, Act of Supremacy, Fisher, Pilgrimage of Grace, Council of the North, Statute of Six Articles, Thirty-Nine Articles, Protector Somerset, Protector Northumberland, Lady Jane Grey, Sir Thomas Wyatt, Council of Trent, Ridley, Latimer, Act of Uniformity, Jesuits, Loyola?

2. What is the meaning of the following "Defender of the Faith," Annates, Reformation, Counter-Reformation?

3. Show the steps by which England under Henry VIII broke away from the Pope

4. What were Henry VIII's reasons for wishing to (a) break away from the Pope, (b) dissolve the monasteries?

5. Write an account of the life of Thomas Cromwell

6. Trace the stages of the Reformation in England under (a) Henry VIII, (b) Edward VI, (c) Mary, (d) Elizabeth

7. Trace the chief stages of the Counter-Reformation in Europe.

II

1. Why did reforms in the Church seem easier to make in the sixteenth century than before?

2. In what ways was the Reformation in England (a) like, (b) unlike, that on the Continent?

3. Discuss whether Henry VIII was a "Protestant"

4. In what way was Thomas Cromwell (a) like, (b) unlike, Wolsey?

5. Discuss whether Henry VIII was justified in dissolving the monasteries.

6. Why was Elizabeth better fitted than Mary to settle the religious difficulties of England in the sixteenth century?

7. "I will do in all things as my father did" How far did Elizabeth keep this promise as regards religious matters?

CHAPTER V

THE SCOTTISH REFORMATION AND MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS

THE FIRST SCOTTISH PROTESTANTS.—The faults of Roman Catholic Churchmen in the later Middle Ages were as noticeable in Scotland as anywhere else. Consequently the



JOHN KNOX PREACHING TO THE LORDS OF THE CONGREGATION, 10TH JUNE, 1559

reforming doctrines of Luther and Calvin soon became popular there. As early as 1528 Scotland had its first Protestant victim—*Patrick Hamilton*, who was a Lutheran trying to persuade the Scottish Church to reform itself. Eighteen years later *George Wishart* was burnt at the stake, and he was not (like Hamilton) a Lutheran, but a Calvinist, who urged that the Roman Church should be abolished in Scotland, and an entirely new Protestant Church established in its place. In revenge for Wishart's death the Scottish Protestants murdered *Cardinal Beaton* (the Archbishop of Saint Andrews) in the same year, and from that moment there was open war between the two religions. The Protestants even seized the archbishop's castle at Saint Andrews and held it for more than a year against the government.

JOHN KNOX—One member of the Protestant garrison at Saint Andrews was *John Knox*, the hero of the Scottish Reformation. After the siege, he, with the other prisoners, served for nineteen months as a galley-slave in French men-of-war; but as soon as he was released he visited the chief reformers on the Continent—especially Calvin, at Geneva, and in 1559 he was back in Scotland again, a confirmed Calvinist. In that year he led the Scots in a revolt against the Roman Church, and the Scots formed a new Protestant "Congregation." Many of the Scottish nobles were prominent members of this new Church, and have been known ever since as the *Lords of the Congregation*. Their motives, however, were not altogether religious; like their fellow-nobles in England, they wished to gain as much as they could from the Reformation, and when (during the years 1559-1560) they followed England's example in destroying the monasteries, it was as much because they desired to have the wealth and lands of the monasteries for themselves, as because they knew that the monasteries needed reforming.

In 1560 Scotland became definitely Protestant, and an official Protestant Church was established by the Scottish Parliament. All this time the ruler of Scotland was *Mary Queen of Scots*, who in 1560 was only eighteen. and neither

she nor her French mother, *Mary of Guise* (who acted as regent for her), had any control over the course of religious affairs in Scotland. Consequently the reformed Scottish Church was very unlike the reformed English Church, which had its organisation, and even its beliefs, fixed for it by the English monarch. The Scottish queen remained Catholic, and the Scottish Church became Protestant in spite of her, so that instead of following a "middle way," like that of Elizabeth of England, the Scots became out-

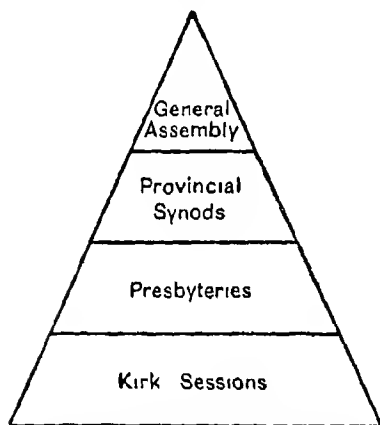


DIAGRAM ILLUSTRATING THE GOVERNMENT
OF THE SCOTTISH PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH.

and-out Calvinists, and their Church adopted the chief of Calvin's doctrines—especially the doctrine of *Predestination*, that every man's life, and death, and his fate after death, are fixed from the beginning. Like all the other Calvinistic churches, too, the Scottish Congregation abolished *episcopacy* (the rule of the Church by bishops). The bishops were once or twice re-

stored by later Scottish kings, but they were finally done away with in 1690, and to this day the chief difference between the Scottish and English Churches is that the former is not *episcopalian* but *presbyterian*.

THE PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH.—"Presbyter" is simply the Greek word for "elder"; and it is the elders of the Scottish Church who give it its name. By the statute passed in the Scottish Parliament in 1560 the congregation of each separate church was to govern itself by its own *kirk session*, elected by the members of the congregation; the kirk session in turn elected representatives to attend

the "provincial *synods*," which superintended the affairs of a number of congregations, and there was also a *General Assembly* to supervise the religious affairs of the whole country. After the death of Knox, when the leader of the Scottish Protestants was *Andrew Melville*, another assembly (called the *Presbytery*) was added, to come between the kirk session and the provincial synod, and it is from these assemblies that the Scottish Church derives its name of "Presbyterian."

RELIGIOUS WARS IN FRANCE AND SCOTLAND.—These changes were not carried through in Scotland without fighting and bloodshed. In 1561 (the year after the establishment of the Scottish Protestant Church) Mary Queen of Scots herself took up the government of Scotland. She was a Catholic, and she struggled as long as she could against the Reformation. Ever since she was a little girl Mary had been living in France, where she married the Dauphin. In 1559 her husband became king of France and she its queen; and until his death, in 1560, Scotland was ruled more by France than by its own queen. This was the time when the Reformation in Scotland was advancing most rapidly, and since both Mary and her husband were Catholics, the Scottish struggle against Catholicism became also a struggle against France. France, too, was torn by religious differences at this time; from 1562 till 1598 there were civil wars between the French Catholics and Protestants, and so Mary, when she returned as a widow to Scotland in 1561, felt even more bitterly than she would have done against her Protestant subjects.

MARRIAGES AND MURDERS. MARY AS QUEEN OF SCOTS.—By this time most of her subjects were Protestants; and in 1565 Mary angered them by marrying *Lord Darnley*, who was a Catholic. Darnley's Catholicism made him unpopular enough; but he became still more unpopular when he tried to make himself the real ruler of Scotland, and especially when he took part in the brutal murder of *Rizzio*, the queen's private secretary, who he thought had more power in the kingdom than himself. This was in 1566, and in the next year a number of Scottish nobles,

headed by the *Earl of Bothwell*, murdered Darnley himself by blowing him up in a house at Kirk o' Fields, outside Edinburgh. In itself, Darnley's murder was a good thing for Scotland; but almost immediately Mary married Bothwell, and the Scots were so shocked that they imprisoned their queen in Lochleven Castle, deposed her, and put her infant son James on the throne as *James VI*. The young king fell into the hands of the Protestant nobles and was brought up as a Presbyterian, but he was not old enough to govern for himself for another sixteen years.

MARY OF SCOTS AND ELIZABETH OF ENGLAND.—Mary made one more bid for liberty and power. In 1568 she escaped from Lochleven and rallied a small army; but she was completely defeated at *Langside* (near Glasgow), and in desperation she fled to England for protection. This, of course, placed Elizabeth of England in a difficulty. Was she to encourage rebels by handing back Mary to her disloyal subjects? Was she to encourage Catholics (at a time when she was compelling her own subjects to be Protestants) by protecting Mary from the Protestants of Scotland? Besides, Elizabeth had no children, and Mary was the next heir to the English throne, and she was all the more dangerous to Elizabeth because the English Catholics would be likely to try to depose their Protestant queen and put Mary on the throne instead. For all these reasons, Elizabeth's advisers (chief of whom, from 1558 till his death in 1598, was *William Cecil, Lord Burleigh*) urged her to put Mary to death.

TWO BRITISH QUEENS AND THE KING OF SPAIN.—Elizabeth, however, saw more clearly than her advisers that it would be as dangerous to England to execute Mary as to keep her alive. Mary was a Catholic, and Philip II of Spain, the leader of the Catholic Counter-Reformation in Europe, would prefer a Catholic to a Protestant Queen of England. Consequently, Philip might have been expected to try to replace Elizabeth by Mary Queen of Scots. But besides being a Catholic, Mary was more than half a Frenchwoman. Her mother, Mary of Guise, was a

French princess; Mary herself had been educated in France, and for a time she had even been French Queen. Philip therefore realised that if he helped to make Mary Queen of England he would be helping to make France stronger; and he dared not do this, because France and Spain were at war during most of the sixteenth century. Philip, in fact, was in an even greater difficulty than Elizabeth; and Elizabeth, who never met trouble half way, took advantage of this, and for nineteen years kept Mary a prisoner in England, without revealing what she intended to do with her. For the whole of this time Philip II did not know what to do—whether to try to conquer England for the Counter-Reformation, and so strengthen France, or to leave Mary a prisoner in order to prevent a Franco-Scottish alliance, and so lose England for the Catholic Church.

MARY, ELIZABETH, AND THE CATHOLICS.—Throughout all these nineteen years Elizabeth was in constant danger from the Roman Catholics at home and abroad. Only a year after Mary came to England there was a Catholic rebellion in the north of England (led by the Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland, who were both Catholics) to restore the Catholic faith in England and make Elizabeth promise that Mary should be her heir. The revolt failed, but in the next year the Catholic danger was increased when the Pope excommunicated Elizabeth from the Church, and so made it lawful for every good Catholic to disobey, and even assist in deposing her. A year later (1571) the *Ridolfi* plot (so called from the man who organised it) attempted to depose Elizabeth, and put Mary on the throne after marrying her to the Catholic Duke of Norfolk. This plot, too, failed, and Norfolk was executed, but in the following year the danger to their faith was brought home to the Protestants of Europe by the *Massacre of Saint Bartholomew*, in which, on Saint Bartholomew's Day (August 24th, 1572), thousands of French Protestants were murdered by order of their Catholic rulers.

For some years after this there were no more very dangerous plots; but in 1580 England was overrun by a

band of Jesuit missionaries, led by two English Jesuits, *Campion* and *Parsons*. Their object was to reconquer



MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS BEING LED TO HER EXECUTION
(From the painting by L. J. Pott in the permanent collection of the Museum and Art Gallery, Nottingham.)
(Reproduced by kind permission of the Corporation of Nottingham.)

England for the Roman Church, but in 1581 Elizabeth stiffened the laws against the *recusants* (those who refused—

Latin *recuso*—to obey Elizabeth's Church settlement), executed Campian, and drove most of the other Jesuits out of the country. Nevertheless, fresh plots now began to be hatched again, the chief being *Throgmorton's* plot (1583) and *Babington's* plot (1586), both of which aimed at assassinating Elizabeth. By this time even Elizabeth began to wonder whether Mary would not be better dead, and in 1587 her advisers succeeded in persuading her to sign a warrant for the Scottish queen's execution. In that year Mary went to the scaffold, but Elizabeth found, as she had all along foreseen, that she had only exchanged the uncertain danger from Mary of Scots for a more certain danger from Philip of Spain.

Books for further reading

GENERAL

- R S Rait *A HISTORY OF SCOTLAND* (*Home Univ Library*)
 S Dark *QUEEN ELIZABETH* (*Hodder and Stoughton*)
 B. Marshall *QUEEN ELIZABETH* (*Harrap*)
 G A Campbell *MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS* (*Duckworth*).

NOVELS

- Sir Walter Scott *THE ABBOT*
 Sir Walter Scott *KENILWORTH*
 Maurice Hewlett *THE QUEEN'S QUAIR* (*Macmillan*).
 G J Whyte Melville *THE QUEEN'S MARIES* (*Longmans*).
 Halliwell Sutcliffe *PAM THE FIDDLER* (*Werner Laurie*).
 C M Yonge *UNKNOWN TO HISTORY* (*Macmillan*).

SOURCE READING

The Fall of Mary Queen of Scots

A letter from Guzman de Silva, the Spanish Ambassador in London, to Philip II of Spain ¹

"LONDON,

"26th July, 1567

"Four days ago the preacher and confessor of the Queen of Scotland arrived here. He is a Dominican Friar, a Frenchman named Roche Mameret, and was at the Council of Trent

¹ From *Scottish History from Contemporary Writers Mary Queen of Scots*, edited by R. S. Rait.

. . . He is much grieved at events in Scotland, and the imprisonment of the Queen, but more than all at the marriage with Bothwell . . .

"He assured me that those who had risen against the Queen had not been moved by zeal to punish the King's murder, as they had been enemies rather than friends of his, nor in consequence of the marriage, as they had been all in favour of it, and had signed their names to that effect without exception, either lay or clerical, apart from the Earl of Murray; but their sole object had been a religious one, as they thought the Queen, being a Catholic, might settle religion in a way not to their liking"

Exercises on the Source Reading

1 Write an account of the "events in Scotland" which made it necessary for the queen's confessor to flee to England

2 Why was the queen's confessor a Frenchman?

3 How many husbands had Mary Queen of Scots? Which of them is not mentioned in this letter?

4 Who were "those who had risen against the Queen"? When and why had they risen?

5. Where and why had "the imprisonment of the Queen" taken place?

6 Who is meant by "the King," and of what country was he king? Why were "those who had risen against the Queen" enemies rather than friends of his?

7 Who was Bothwell, and why were the king's enemies in favour of Mary's marriage with Bothwell?

8 When and how had the queen's enemies recently "settled religion in a way to their liking"?

9 Why was Philip II interested in the affairs of Mary Queen of Scots?

10 Write notes on Dominican Friar, the Council of Trent,

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER V

Charts and Maps

Make Time Charts to illustrate the following

1 Scotland in the sixteenth century (completed from Chapter II).

2 The Life of Mary Queen of Scots

3 The Reformation in Scotland (have a separate column for the Reformation outside Scotland).

4. Religious wars in Europe, 1550-1600.

Draw Graphs to illustrate the fortunes of

1 The Reform Movement in Scotland, 1520-1600

2 The power of Mary Queen of Scots in Scotland, 1542-1587.

3 The danger to England from Mary Queen of Scots, 1560-1590.

4 The danger to England from Philip II, 1550-1600.

Draw a Map of Great Britain to illustrate the reign, wars, and captivity of Mary Queen of Scots

Questions

I

1. What do you know about the following Patrick Hamilton, George Wishart, Cardinal Beaton, John Knox, Mary of Guise, Andrew Melville, Lord Darnley, Bothwell, Rizzio, Langside, William Cecil (Lord Burleigh), the Ridolfi Plot, Throgmorton's Plot, Babington Plot, Parsons, Massacre of St Bartholomew?
2. What is meant by the following Lords of the Congregation, Predestination, Episcopacy, Presbyterian, Recusants?
3. Write an account of religious changes in Scotland, 1520-1570
4. Write an account of the life of Mary Queen of Scots.
5. Give the names, and explain the duties, of the various assemblies of the Scottish Kirk
6. How and why was Mary Queen of Scots driven from her Scottish kingdom?
7. Write an account of the life of John Knox
8. What attempts were made, in the first thirty years of the reign of Elizabeth, to regain England for the Roman Church?

II

1. Compare and contrast the Scottish Reformation with (a) the English Reformation, (b) the Reformation on the Continent
2. In what different ways were the three husbands of Mary Queen of Scots important?
3. In what difficulties was Elizabeth placed by the flight of Mary Queen of Scots to England?
4. For what reasons was Mary Queen of Scots kept in England for nineteen years before being executed?
5. For what reasons did Philip II hesitate to attack England during the lifetime of Mary Queen of Scots?

CHAPTER VI

ELIZABETHAN SEAMEN AND THE SPANIARDS

Now that Mary Queen of Scots was dead, there was no longer any reason for Philip II to postpone his plan of winning England back to the Roman Church, and even, perhaps, adding England to his mighty Spanish Empire—to which he had already added Portugal and its colonies in 1580. Mary's son and heir, James VI of Scotland, was a Protestant whom no good Catholic could recognise as

heir to the English throne ; and as there was some doubt who was the best Catholic claimant to succeed Elizabeth, Philip settled the question by claiming the English crown for himself. For after all, Philip, while he was the husband of our Queen Mary (1554-1558), had been the last Catholic King of England ; and besides, Mary Queen of Scots had bequeathed to Philip her own claim on the English crown.

ENGLISH SEAMANSHIP IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY — Philip therefore determined to prepare a great fleet (*armada* was the Spanish word) to attack England where she was strongest—on the sea. It was the sailors of England who had been causing most trouble to Philip for the last twenty years and more, and he hoped that his mighty expedition would end for ever the exploits of the Elizabethan sea-dogs on the Spanish mainland of South America.

Those exploits were due (like those of Columbus, Magellan, and the other pioneers of Spain herself) to the need to find fresh outlets for trade in the sixteenth century. Spain and Portugal between them were sharing the new colonies and markets in South America, and at first it seemed hopeless for the English to compete with them there. English seamen therefore tried to discover new trade routes to India and the East in places where there was no Spanish or Portuguese competition. Instead of following the routes which Spaniards and Portuguese had discovered round South Africa and South America, the English explorers of the middle of the sixteenth century sought routes round the north of Asia and America ; and these routes became known as the North-East and the North-West Passages.

ENGLISH TRADING COMPANIES.—The Elizabethans never, as a matter of fact, succeeded in finding either of these passages, since both of them proved icebound for the greater part of the year ; but they did succeed in opening up new outlets for English trade. In 1553 *Willoughby* and *Chancellor* failed to find a North-East Passage, but instead they pushed southwards from the White Sea into Russia, and established trading relations with the ruler of Moscow. As a result of this, a few years later there was founded an

English *Muscovy Company* which carried on a very successful trade with the interior of Russia. Similarly, *Frobisher*, in 1576-8, *Davis*, in 1585-7, and *Hudson*, in 1610, failed to find the North-West Passage, but their explorations made the English familiar with the most northern parts of America, and laid the foundations for the great trade which was carried on in later times by the famous *Hudson Bay Company*. In better-known waters, too, English trade developed during the reign of Elizabeth. The *Levant Company* was founded to trade with the Eastern Mediterranean; above all, in 1600 the foundation of the *East India Company* began one of the most stirring stories in the history of British trade and the British Empire.

ENGLISH SEA DOGS ON THE SPANISH MAIN.—But it was not these regular trading companies which had irritated Philip II, and made him anxious to suppress the seamen of England. His annoyance was caused by sailors whom he regarded as pirates, since they spent their time in plundering peaceful Spanish shipping and Spanish towns when we were not at war with Spain. Chief of these buccaneers were *Hawkins* and *Drake*, and, later, *Sir Walter Raleigh*. Hawkins began the practice of sailing into the waters of the *Spanish Main* (that is, the “mainland” of South America), and trying to trade with the Spaniards there, although Philip had forbidden his subjects in America to trade with any one who was not a Spaniard. The Spanish colonists, however, knew that they could get better bargains from the English merchants than from their Spanish fellow-countrymen, and many towns admitted the English—sometimes disobeying their governors, sometimes pretending that the English forced them to buy their goods. It was Hawkins who discovered that there was a good market for negroes in the Spanish colonies, which wanted slaves, and he led a number of expeditions which went first to Africa to raid the negro villages for slaves, and then to Spanish America to sell them.

DRAKE.—Sir Francis Drake learned his seamanship under Hawkins, but he became much more skilful than his master. At first, like Hawkins, he did his privateering on

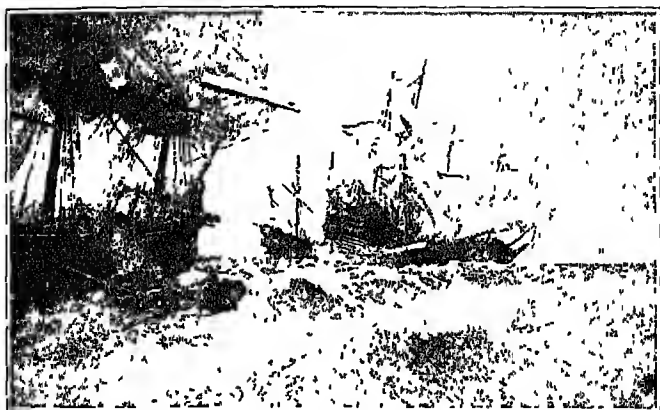
the eastern coast of South America, but in 1577 he set out, in his ship the *Pelican* (which he later christened the *Golden Hind*) with four others, to find his way into the Pacific, in order to raid and trade with the Spanish towns on the west coast of America. The passage through the Straits of Magellan (in spite of its reputation for rough seas) presented no real difficulty. But once he was through these Straits, Drake was in unknown waters, and the Spaniards never dreamt of finding him in the Pacific. In a storm, in which he was driven southwards out of his course, he discovered that the island of Tierra del Fuego was not, as every one thought, a part of a great southern continent of "Australia," but that the Pacific could be reached round the south of it. Then he pushed northwards, raiding city after city, and capturing Spanish galleons, along the western coast of Spanish America. He even tried to find the much-desired North-West Passage by sailing from the Pacific into the Atlantic round the north of America; but in this he failed, like everybody else. He therefore followed in the path of Magellan's expedition of half a century before,¹ crossed the Pacific, and made for home by sailing westwards all the time. On his way he made with the native king of Java a trading treaty which proved useful to English merchants in the Eastern seas. Then he followed da Gama's route round the south of Africa,¹ and reached Plymouth in 1580, three years after starting. He was the first commander to sail right round the world, and by doing so he did more than any Englishman before him to further English trade.

WAR BETWEEN ENGLAND AND SPAIN—This expedition made war between England and Spain unavoidable. Philip II knew that Elizabeth had shares in it, as in many others—that is, she paid part of the cost and took part of the profit, if there was any. Thus Elizabeth followed her usual policy of injuring Spain and making money at the same time, though she did both secretly, since there was as yet no open war between the two countries. Philip retaliated by secretly helping the enemies of Elizabeth,

¹ See p. 182.

and he was behind the Jesuit invasion of 1580, and all the plots of these years.¹

THE RISE OF THE DUTCH REPUBLIC.—Ill-feeling between England and Spain, however, was now becoming so keen that secrecy was very difficult to maintain. Elizabeth had long been sending money, and allowing English volunteers to fight, for Philip's revolting subjects in the Netherlands, where the Protestant Dutch were struggling for their religion and liberty under the leadership of *William of*



THE SPANISH ARMADA.

From the painting by Vicat Cole in the permanent collection of the Museum and Art Gallery, Nottingham

(Reproduced by kind permission of the Corporation of Nottingham)

Orange (an ancestor of our King William III). In 1568 she had seized the ships which were taking money to the Spanish troops in the Netherlands, and had kept it for herself. Four years later the fleet of the Dutch rebels was permitted to sail from an English port. By 1584, when William of Orange was killed, the freedom of the seven Protestant provinces of the Netherlands was assured, but fighting went on for many years, and Englishmen took a prominent part in it. In 1586 (the year when Philip was assisting the last plot to put Mary Queen of Scots on the

¹ See pp. 227-9

English throne) Elizabeth's favourite, the *Earl of Leicester*, led a big English expedition to the help of the Dutch; and it was in this year that that gallant English gentleman, *Sir Philip Sidney*, made himself famous by his courageous death at the battle of *Zutphen*.

THE SPANISH ARMADA (1588) — Thus, when Mary Queen of Scots was executed, Philip had plenty of reasons for attacking England at once. He prepared for the purpose a navy so powerful that the Spaniards called it the *Invincible*



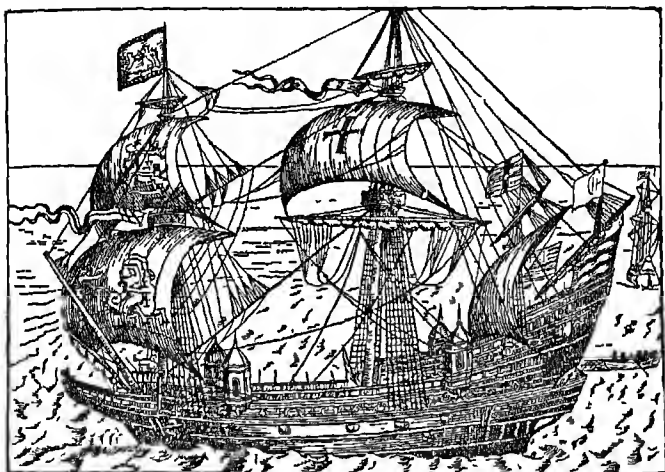
16TH-CENTURY SPANISH WARSHIP.

Notice the high decks for boarding the enemy.

Armada. But a few weeks after Mary's execution, Drake sailed to Cadiz and did what he called "singeing the King of Spain's beard" by destroying thirty-three of the Spanish ships in their own harbour. This delayed the Armada for several months, then its commander-in-chief died; and it did not finally sail for England till the summer of 1588.

The Spanish plan was to push straight up the English Channel, put in at a port in the Netherlands, and there pick up the Spanish general (the *Duke of Parma*) with an army for invading England. But the English admirals were far more skilled than those of Spain, and the English

ships were more numerous and better handled than the unwieldy Spanish galleons. So many Spanish ships were sunk in the Channel that the rest were glad to put into Calais to refit. But even here they were not left in peace. Fireships sent down the wind by the English drove them from their anchorage, and before they could re-form into proper fighting order the whole English fleet defeated them in a pitched battle off *Gravelines*. They never had a chance to reach Parma. Instead, they fled northwards



AN ELIZABETHAN WARSHIP.

Notice the guns for attack from a distance

before the wind, and tried to get back home round the north of Scotland and the west of Ireland. But of about a hundred and thirty ships which had set out from Spain, only fifty-four ever reached home again.

CAUSES OF THE SPANISH DEFEAT—The Spaniards had called their Armada invincible, but it was really bound to be beaten. For one thing, Philip II had put it in command of a general, the *Duke of Medina Sidonia*, who had little experience at sea, whereas the English admirals were past-masters of their craft and could out-manoeuver their enemy

all the time. Besides this, the Spaniards had built their navy for fighting on a plan which was already out of date. Their ships were rather taller than those of the English, as they were intended for *boarding*—that is, for grappling with the enemy and putting soldiers aboard to capture her. But during their years of practice the English admirals had perfected a new system of naval warfare, which still remains the best. Their ships were manned, not, like those of Spain, with more soldiers than sailors, but with sailors



(Photo W J Mansell)

A MEDAL

to commemorate the defeat of the Spanish Armada. At the top, in Hebrew, is the word "Jehovah" and the Latin inscription around reads "He blew and they were scattered 1588"

who were gunners as well; and the English guns and the English gunners were better and more numerous than the enemy's. The Spanish galleons were given no chance to board our ships; instead, they were riddled with English cannon-balls from a distance, so that their very size told against them. "God blew and they were scattered," said the medal which was made to celebrate the victory; but the skilled seamanship of the English sailors had done even more than the winds to bring the Spanish Armada to disaster.

RESULTS OF THE SPANISH DEFEAT.—After this, fighting went on for some time; and although victory on the whole lay with the English, the Spaniards had learned their lesson, and in future they gave a better account of themselves. But the defeat of the Spanish Armada had settled once for all that England should never be either Spanish or Roman Catholic, it had also assured the new Dutch Republic of its hard-won freedom; and (although few men realised this at the time) it had shown England to be the greatest sea power in Europe, and had decided that in future the greatest trading nation should be either England or Holland—the seventeenth century was to show which.

IRELAND UNDER ELIZABETH—The fighting with Spain went on as long as the old queen lived. As late as 1601 a Spanish expedition was sent to Ireland, to add to Elizabeth's difficulties there. Though this expedition was defeated at *Kinsale*, Ireland was one of the problems which Elizabeth (like most other English sovereigns) failed to solve. The Irish were still far behind the English in civilisation, and the laws of England did not suit the Irish customs of holding land. Things were not improved when, in the reign of Queen Mary and her husband Philip II, English settlers had been sent to establish Queen's County and King's County, for the English settlers simply quarrelled with their Irish neighbours. In 1580 (when Spain was becoming dangerous in many ways) a Catholic army of Spaniards and Italians landed in Ireland, but was defeated and slaughtered at *Smerwick*. After this, another attempt was made to establish English colonies, this time in Munster. But again it failed, and a few years later there was a very widespread rebellion of the Irish under *Hugh O'Neill*, one of the chief Irish nobles. O'Neill's rising was the most dangerous of all the Irish revolts in Tudor times. Even the *Earl of Essex*, Elizabeth's favourite in her declining years, failed to suppress it—and was executed by his mistress on his return. In the next three years (1600–1603) the *Earl of Mountjoy* did succeed in overcoming O'Neill and ending his rebellion. But the Irish people were still discontented, and they became more so when the Stuart kings continued to ill-treat them; so that the Irish problem remained for later ages to solve.

Books for further reading.

GENERAL

D Bell *DRAKE* (*Duckworth*).

HAKLUIT'S VOYAGES—SELECTIONS (*Blackwell*).

H A Treble · SELECTIONS FROM HAKLUIT (*Chambers*).

Sir Sidney Lee · GREAT ENGLISHMEN OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY (*Nelson*).

A W. Seers · THE STORY OF EARLY ENGLISH TRAVEL AND DISCOVERY

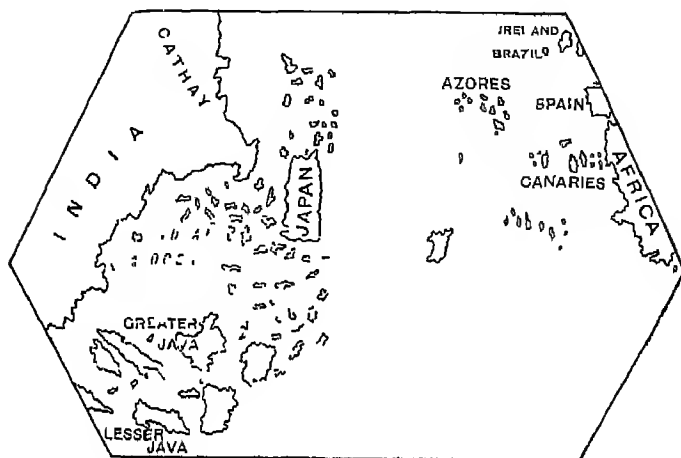
NOVELS

Charles Kingsley · WESTWARD HO!

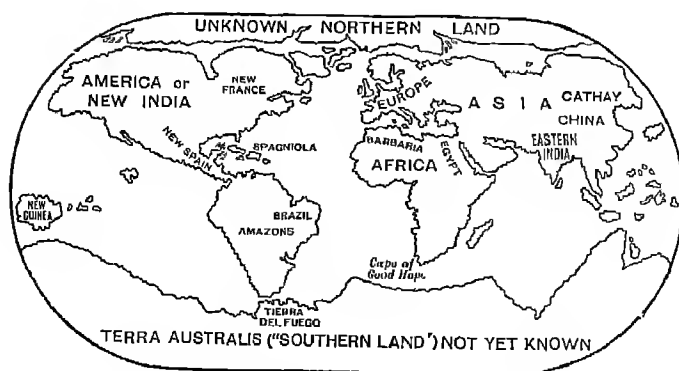
Jeffery Farnol · BLACK BARTELMY'S TREASURE (*Sampson Low*).

G A Henty · UNDER DRAKE'S FLAG (*Blackie*).

SOURCE READINGS:

Two Ancient Maps

(i) A MAP OF THE ATLANTIC DRAWN IN 1474.



(ii) A MAP OF THE WORLD DRAWN IN 1570.

Exercises on the Source Readings

1. Make a list of the mistakes in each map
2. Which parts of the world were (a) best known, (b) least known, in 1474 and 1570, and why?
3. What indications are there in the 1474 map that something was known of America before its discovery by Columbus?
4. Is the title of the 1474 map ("A Map of the Atlantic") a good one? Give your reasons.
5. Make a list of discoveries made between the publication of these two maps. By whom was each discovery made?
6. Make a list of discoveries made between 1570 and 1600
7. Explain the importance and consequences of the following mistakes in the 1570 map.
 - (a) The North-West Passage.
 - (b) The North-East Passage
 - (c) The extent of Tierra del Fuego

What discoveries were subsequently made with reference to these mistakes, and who made each discovery?

8. Explain the meaning and significance of the following names on the 1570 map: New Spain, Spagniola, New France, New India, Eastern India, America, Terra Australis ("Southern Land"), Amazons, Cape of Good Hope, Barbaia

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER VI

Charts and Maps

Make Time Charts to illustrate the following

1. Exploits of Elizabethan seamen
2. The life of Drake
3. Drake's voyage round the world.
4. The history of Ireland in the sixteenth century (completed from Chapter I)

Draw Graphs to show the rise and fall of the following.

1. The power of Philip II in Europe
2. The fortunes of the Dutch in their struggle with Spain
3. The fortunes of the Spanish Armada, May 29th to August 31st, 1588
4. The power of the English in Ireland in the reign of Elizabeth

Draw Maps of

1. Western Europe, showing (a) the chief places of importance in the history of England, Scotland, Ireland, Spain, France, and Holland in the sixteenth century, (b) the route of the Spanish Armada
2. Europe and America, showing (a) lands discovered in the sixteenth century, (b) scenes of the activity of Elizabethan seamen in Spanish America, (c) Drake's route round the world.

Questions

I

1. What do you know about the following: Willoughby and Chancellor, Frobisher, Davis, Hudson, Stratts of Magellan, Earl of Leicester, Sir Philip

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Sidney, battle of Zutphen, Duke of Parma, battle of Gravelines, Duke of Medina Sidonia, Hugh O'Neill, Earl of Essex, Mountjoy ?

2. What is the meaning of the following. Armada, galleon, Spanish Main, "boarding" tactics ?

3. Write an account of the exploits of Elizabethan seamen (*a*) on the Spanish Main, (*b*) in the North-West Atlantic, (*c*) in the North-East Atlantic. Explain why each exploit was undertaken.

4. What great trading companies were founded in the second half of the sixteenth century, and for what reasons ?

5. Write accounts of the lives of Hawkins, Drake, and Raleigh.

6. Write an account of Drake's voyage round the world.

7. Write an account of the expedition of the Spanish Armada.

8. What were the chief differences between the seamanship and fighting methods of the English and the Spaniards in 1588 ?

9. Write an account of the history of Ireland under Elizabeth.

II

1. For what reasons were English seamen so active in the reign of Elizabeth ?

2. Explain the various reasons why *open* war was declared between England and Spain in 1588, and not before.

3. In what different ways had England waged secret war against Spain before 1588 ?

4. Give reasons for the failure of the Spanish Armada.

5. What were the various results of the defeat of the Spanish Armada ?

6. Why was Ireland in the sixteenth century more difficult to govern than England ?

3

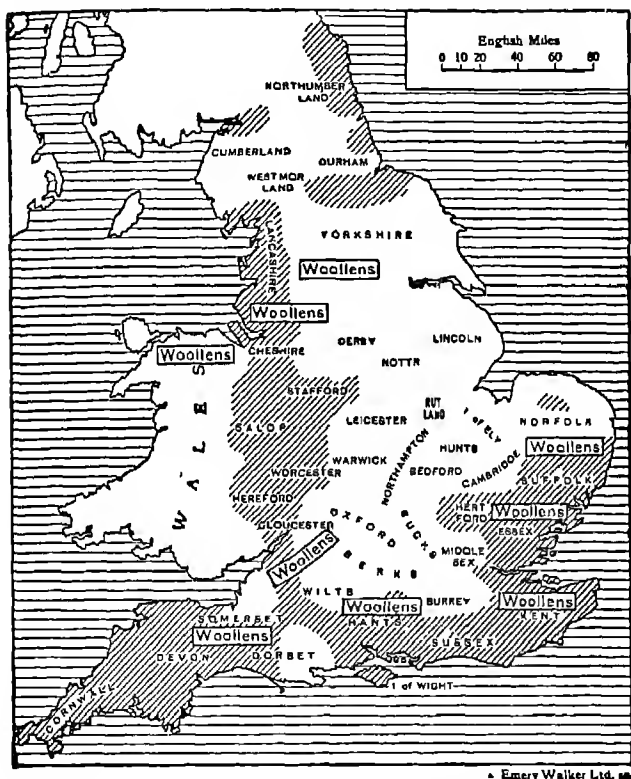
CHAPTER VII

ENGLISH LIFE AND LITERATURE UNDER THE TUDORS

A NATION OF SHOPKEEPERS.—The buccaneers of whom we have been reading in the last chapter were seeking, in all their adventures, for fresh markets for English trade ; and they were doing this because now, for the first time, the English were becoming what they were afterwards called—"a nation of shopkeepers." This, indeed, was one of the many signs during the sixteenth century that the medieval period had come to an end, and that the

modern period, in which trade was to play a more and more important part, was coming in.

THE ENGLISH WOOLLEN INDUSTRY—We have seen



ENCLOSURES IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY,

Notice that most enclosures took place near the cloth-making districts

in a former chapter that a new English industry was developing as early as the fourteenth century. This was the woollen industry, which grew so rapidly that, by Tudor times, the English looms were strong rivals of those of

Flanders This growth of the woollen industry in the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries led to important changes in the life of the people of England. As yet there were hardly any factories or mills, but looms were to be found in more and more homes, not only in the towns, but in the country as well, where the farmers and their womenfolk made extra money by weaving cloth and selling it to the cloth merchants. This stage of cloth manufacture, when most of the weaving was done in private houses, is usually known as the *Domestic System*, and it lasted till the end of the eighteenth century.

SHEEP FARMING AND ENCLOSURES—As the woollen industry developed it needed more wool—and the best wool in Europe was grown on the backs of English sheep. During the later Middle Ages most of this wool had been exported to Flanders; but now it was used by the English weavers, and more of it was wanted than ever. Consequently the great landowners in this country began to use their land for sheep runs instead of for growing corn, and this affected the peasants in two ways. First of all, it was necessary to enclose the old open fields with hedges or walls to prevent the sheep from running away, and the lords who did this often enclosed land which was not their own, so that the peasants had less land to cultivate or to feed their cattle on, and were poorer in consequence. Secondly, sheep-farming needed far fewer labourers than corn-growing had done, so that there were (for the first time in English history) many unemployed. These unemployed, when they failed to get work in their own villages, went about the country looking for it elsewhere, with the result that England was soon overrun by tramps, many of whom were strong men who would stick at nothing when they were starving.

PRICES AND POVERTY.—There were several other things which made even worse the lot of these tramps—"vagabonds" or "sturdy beggars" as they were called then. One of these things was that, all through the sixteenth century, prices were continually going up, largely owing to the amount of new money which was coming into

Europe from the Spanish silver mines in newly-discovered South America. When there is too much money in a country prices rise, and more and more money was pouring into England at this time. Another cause of poverty was the dissolution of the monasteries, which had employed many labourers and had given away much food and clothing to the poor. Not all the monasteries had done their duty in this way, but many of them had, and hardly any of the nobles to whom the monastic lands were given cared for the poor on their new estates. In 1536 the Pilgrimage of Grace (led by a Yorkshireman, *Robert Aske*) marched to London to demand that the monasteries should be restored. Thirteen years later another rebellion (this time in Norfolk, under the leadership of *Robert Ket*) demanded that *enclosures* of land for sheep farming should cease, and that the rent of land should be lowered. Both of these rebellions failed, and their leaders were executed, but that did nothing to right the grievances of the poor, and other remedies had to be tried.

POOR PEOPLE AND THE POOR LAW — At first (especially under Henry VIII) the government thought that punishment was enough. Laws were passed to punish "vagrabonds" by branding for their first offence, slavery for their second, and death for their third. These laws might have been successful if the poverty of the tramps had not been genuine, but as it was, real measures for relieving the poor had to be thought out. Each parish was therefore compelled to look after its own poor—first by making collections for them; and then, when that failed to bring in enough money, by levying a compulsory *rate* on the parish landowners. This was the first *poor rate*, and it was first collected in the reign of Elizabeth. Later on it became the practice to set the unemployed on useful work of various kinds, the expenses of which were also paid by the parish.

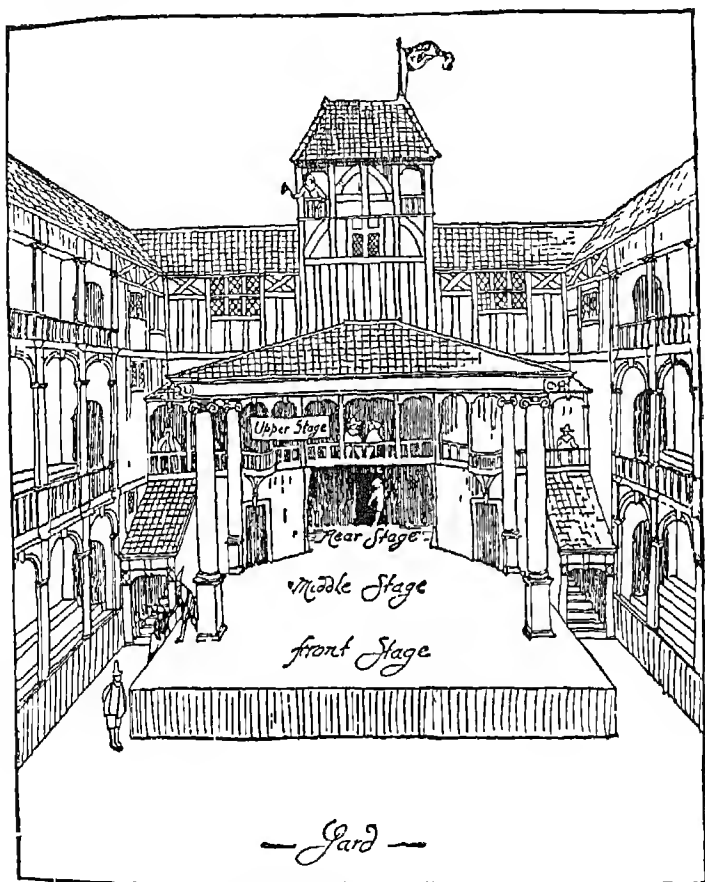
Finally, at the very end of the Tudor period, was passed the great *Poor Law of 1601*, which summed up the previous acts, and fixed the methods of poor relief for over two centuries. By this act, each parish was to have a com-

pulsory poor rate, and with the funds so provided work was to be found for the able-bodied poor, money was to be given to the poor who were not able-bodied enough to work, and children were to be apprenticed to good trades, so that there should be less unemployment in future times. Partly through this act, and partly because things were beginning to right themselves anyway, there was much less trouble from poverty in the seventeenth century than there had been in the sixteenth.

MERRIE ENGLAND —In spite of all the poverty of the time, England was never more truly "Merrie England" than in the sixteenth century. One effect of the Renaissance, as we have seen, was to make men keener than ever before on enjoying themselves. Consequently, the men of that age were not likely to neglect their pleasures. England had always been, even in the Middle Ages, a country where sport was popular—especially rough sports, like football or hockey, which were played anywhere (in the streets, on the ice, even in the churchyard), with no fixed rules and often with serious injury to the players. In fact, the people of the time were brutal in many of their pleasures. Among the favourite sports of the well-to-do classes were bear-baiting, bull-baiting, and stag-baiting, in which the baited animal was tied to a stake and worried to death by dogs—though often not before many of the dogs had been killed too.

THEATRES AND THE DRAMA IN THE AGE OF ELIZABETH. —Bear-pits and cock-pits were almost as common in most places as theatres are now, but the theatre itself was only just beginning to develop. In the Middle Ages plays had been performed by guilds of one sort or another, and by wandering players, but nearly all the plays were about religious subjects—*mysteries*, or *miracle-plays*, they were called. The performance took place (like the games of the Middle Ages) in any convenient spot—from churchyards to the courtyards of inns, or even the streets. Under the influence of the Renaissance, plays in the sixteenth century became less religious, and were written about all kinds of subjects. And, in London, at any rate, special theatres

were built for them, the best-known of which was Shakespeare's "Globe Theatre."



THE INTERIOR OF AN ELIZABETHIAN THEATRE.

(From "Shakespeare's England" Clarendon Press)

SHAKESPEARE — Towards the end of the century theatre-going became one of the chief amusements of the metropolis. The first of the great Elizabethan play-writers was

MR WILLIAM
SHAKESPEARES
COMEDIES,
HISTORIES, &
TRAGEDIES.

Printed according to the True Originall Copies



L O N D O N

Printed by Isaac Iaggard, and Edw. Blount 1623.

TITLE-PAGE OF THE FIRST FOLIO EDITION OF
SHAKESPEARE'S PLAYS, 1623

Christopher Marlowe, who specialised in tragical or historical plays, like his *Doctor Faustus* and *Edward II.* It was Marlowe who showed his contemporaries that great plays were best written in *blank verse*, and this lesson was early learnt by Shakespeare, the greatest of them all. Shakespeare was a true man of the Renaissance, and his plays reflect every aspect of Elizabethan life. There are pictures of Merrie England, with its country life, its wrestling-matches, its May-day festivities, and its forest scenery, in such comedies as *As You Like It* and *A Midsummer Night's Dream*. *Twelfth Night* was written, as its name implies, to be performed last among the prolonged jollities of the twelve days after Christmas. In *The Merchant of Venice*, *Romeo and Juliet*, and similar plays, we see the fondness of the time for sentimental stories and romance—especially if it was supposed to take place in Italy, the home of the Renaissance. English history, one of the favourite studies of the age, was represented by ten plays in which Shakespeare dealt with the lives of English kings from John to Henry VIII. The contemporary interest in ancient Roman affairs was catered for by *Julius Caesar* and two other Roman plays. Finally, Shakespeare wrote much about the serious side of life, perhaps the best things he ever wrote are his four great tragedies *Hamlet*, *Othello*, *Macbeth*, and *King Lear*.

MASQUES AND MUSIC.—Towards the end of the sixteenth century *masques* became fashionable. These were a sort of play set to music for singing and dancing—something like a modern revue, but far more stately. In performances of masques (unlike those of plays, which had no scenery at all) vast sums of money were spent on the scenery and costumes, which were often designed by the foremost architects of the day, such as *Inigo Jones*, while the music was frequently composed by leading musicians. Music of all sorts was exceedingly popular in Elizabethan times—not only solos and part-songs, but instrumental music as well; and many of the works of composers such as *William Byrd* and *Orlando Gibbons* are as often performed in our day as they were in their own.

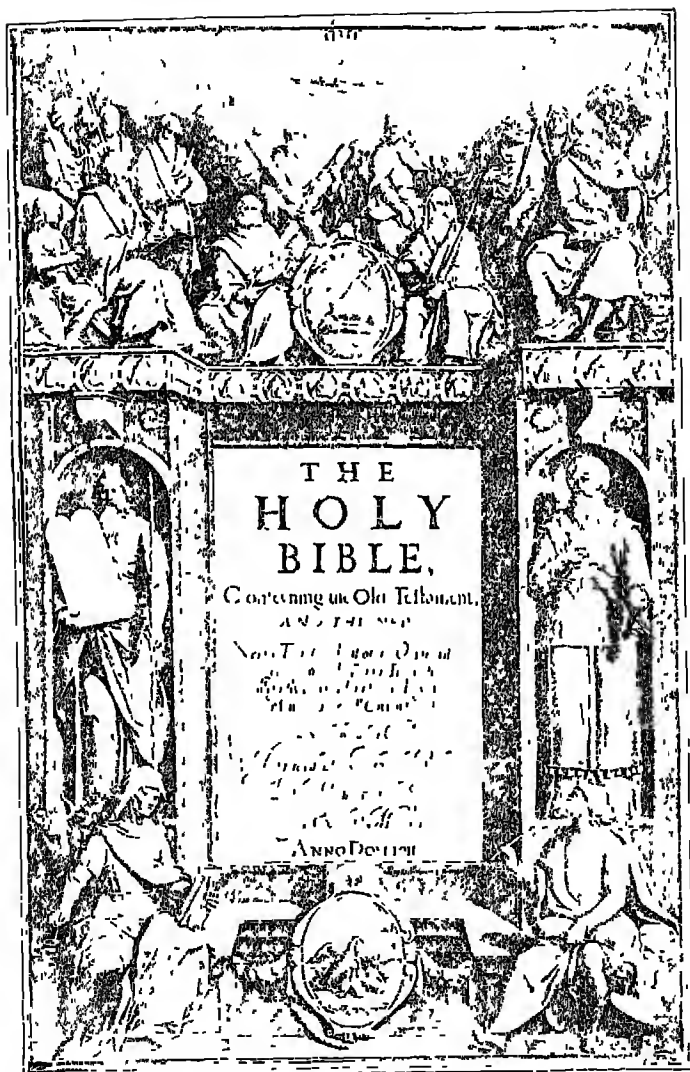
ELIZABETHAN ARCHITECTURE —Architecture was another of the arts which flourished in Tudor times. By now, however, the fashions of the Middle Ages had passed away, and builders were busy erecting, not castles and churches, but comfortable houses for the wealthy classes. During the sixteenth century, as we have seen,¹ the Gothic style gradually died out, and the *Renaissance* style, introduced from Italy, remained fashionable in England for nearly three hundred years.



ELIZABETHAN COURTIER
(The lady on the right is playing a spinet)

ELIZABETHAN LITERATURE —We have just been considering the plays of Shakespeare and others as amusements, but though they were that, more than anything else, to the Elizabethans, we must remember that in our own days they are read much more than they are performed, so that they occupy a prominent place in our national literature. Indeed, few people would deny that these plays of Shakespeare, *Ben Jonson*, and other Elizabethans, are among the greatest books of all time; and certainly they were the

¹ See pp 202-4.



TITLE-PAGE OF THE AUTHORIZED VERSION OF THE BIBLE, 1611.

greatest things in Elizabethan literature. Nevertheless, many other books were written then which will last as long as the English language—romances in verse, like *Spenser's "Faery Queen"*; romances in prose, like *Sir Philip Sidney's "Arcadia"*, or the writings of *Sir Francis Bacon*, whose all-round interests enabled him to write histories like his *Life of Henry VII*, philosophical works such as his *Advancement of Learning*, and *Essays* on subjects of all kinds, from "Gardens" and "Building" to "Wisdom" and "Truth." Many of the most popular books of the time were translations from other languages, for the Elizabethans were not content with English literature alone. Of these translations, most were romantic stories, but the greatest of them all was that famous translation of the Jewish scriptures which we call the *Authorised Version of the Bible*. It was published in 1611, and so (like much other "Elizabethan" literature) it may seem to belong to the Stuart period. But the many translators who wrote our Bible in such splendid English, and Shakespeare, Bacon, and others who continued writing after Queen Elizabeth was dead, had been brought up in Tudor times, and so their works are reckoned as part of Elizabethan literature.

Books for further reading

GENERAL

- L F Salzman *ENGLAND IN TUDOR TIMES* (*Batsford*)
 G B Harrison *ENGLAND IN SHAKESPEARE'S DAY* (*Methuen*)
 W R Macklin *IN THE DAYS OF ELIZABETH* (*Dent*)
 M and C H B Quennell *A HISTORY OF EVERYDAY THINGS* (*Batsford*)
 D Hartley and M M Elliott *LIFE AND WORK OF THE PEOPLE OF ENGLAND*
 (*Batsford*)
 Traill and Mann *SOCIAL ENGLAND* (*Cassell*)
 Whicher and Mitchell *ENGLISH PEOPLE OF THE PAST* (*Longmans*)

NOVELS

- Sir Walter Scott *KENILWORTH*
 H C Bailey *THE SEA-CAPTAIN* (*Methuen*)
 H C Bailey *THE MASTER OF GRAY* (*Longmans*).
 Bernard Capes *WHERE ENGLAND SETS HER FEET* (*Collins*)

E. Everett-Green EVIL MAYDAY (*Nelson*)
 H M Imbert-Terry. IN SPACIOUS TIMES (*Benn*).
 Edgar Wallace THE BLACK AVONS (*Gill*)

SOURCE READING.

Country Wages in the Sixteenth Century

(From a list of wages as fixed by the Wiltshire magistrates in 1603)

"A bailiff of husbandry shall not take by the year of wages above 53s. 4d., and a livery or 10s. for the same

"A chief shepherd which keepeth one thousand sheep and above shall not take by the year of wages above 40s., and a livery or 8s for the same, and pasture feeding for 20 sheep all the year, or 12d for every of them. . . .

"A chief hind of husbandry and a chief carter shall not take by the year of wages above 40s., and a livery or 8s. . . .

"A common servant of husbandry, and a common shepherd, above the age of 21 years, shall not take by the year of wages above 33s 4d., and a livery or 6s 8d. for the same

"All other servants and shepherds under 21 years and above 16 years shall not take by the year of wages above 20s., and a livery or 5s. for the same. . . .

"Mowers of grain by the day, with meat and drink, shall not take of wages above 5d., and without meat and drink not above 10d.

"Men labourers in haymaking, or gripping of Lent corn, shall not take by the day, with meat and drink, of wages above 4d., and without meat and drink not above 8d"¹

Exercises on the Source Reading

1 Explain the meaning of "bailiff, livery, pasture, hind, husbandry, Lent

2 "A chief shepherd which keepeth one thousand sheep and above" on what change in farming methods does this throw light? What were the effects of this change?

3. Make a list of the classes of farm workers mentioned in this extract, showing (a) their wages as given here, (b) the wages of the same classes nowadays.

¹ *Report of the Historical Manuscripts Commission.*

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4 What can you deduce from the differences, as given here, between (a) allowances for "liveries," (b) allowances for "meat and drink"?

5 "Lent corn" is now called "spring corn." What can you deduce from this change in name?

6 What can you learn from this extract about (a) prices generally, (b) the cost of living, (c) conditions of employment of farm workers, in the sixteenth century?

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER VII

Charts

Make Time Charts to illustrate the following

- 1 The poor and their troubles and struggles in the sixteenth century
- 2 Great English writers and writings, 1570-1620

Draw Graphs to illustrate

- 1 The growth of (a) sheep farming, (b) the woollen industry, (c) enclosures, 1401-1601
- 2 (a) The growth of poverty, (b) the rise in prices, 1501-1601
- 3 The rise of Elizabethan literature, 1570-1620

Questions

I

1 What do you know about the following Pilgrimage of Grace, Robert Aske, Robert Ket, Poor Law of 1601, Marlowe, Ben Jonson, Edmund Spenser, Bacon, Inigo Jones, William Byrd, Orlando Gibbons?

2 What is meant by the following "A nation of shopkeepers," domestic system, open fields, enclosures, poor rate, miracle plays, mysteries, masques, blank verse, Authorised Version?

3 Write an account of the chief changes in (a) country life, (b) town life, 1350-1550.

4 Make a list of the chief laws passed in the sixteenth century to help the poor, giving the terms of each

5 What were the chief amusements of (a) poor people, (b) rich people, in the sixteenth century?

6 Who were the principal Elizabethan dramatists, and what were their chief plays?

7 Who were the chief Elizabethan writers who were not dramatists, and for what is each of them famous?

8 What do you know about music in Elizabethan times?

II

1 Explain how the changes in town and country life in the sixteenth century were connected with one another

2 For what different reasons did poverty increase in the sixteenth century?

3 Write an account of the life of Shakespeare.

UNDER THE TUDORS

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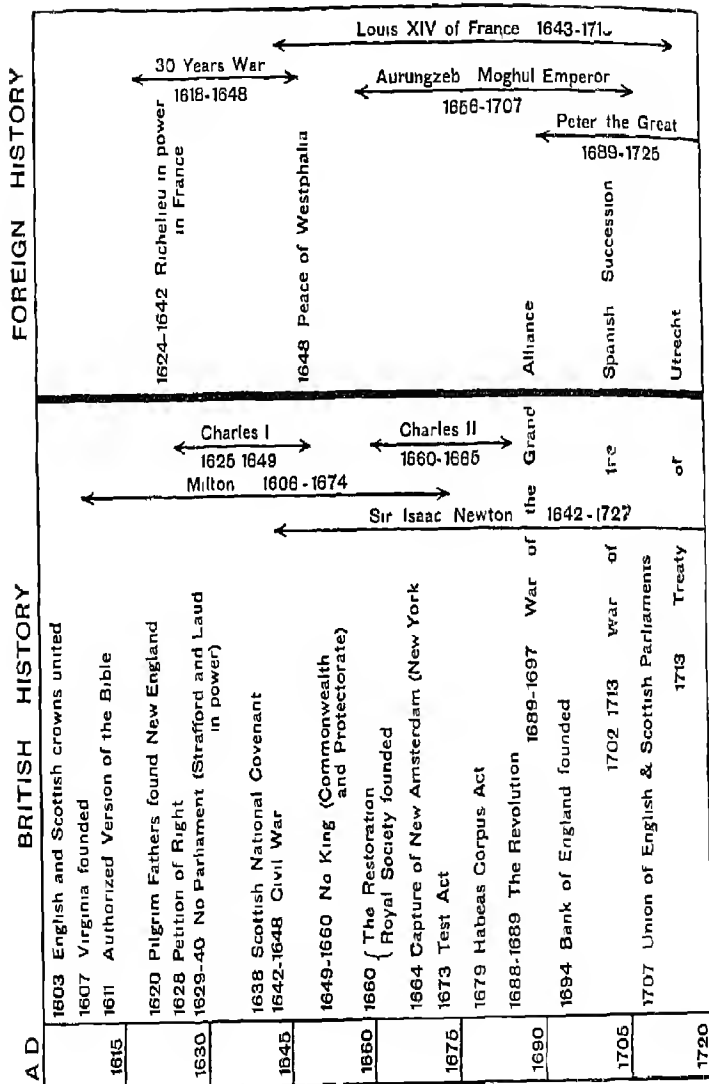
4. Discuss the statement that "England was never more truly *Merry* England than in the sixteenth century"

5. It is often said that in England the Renaissance reached its height in the reign of Elizabeth. Discuss this.

6. Would you sooner have been alive in 1500 or 1600? Give as many reasons as possible for your answer.

7. Learn the words and music of an Elizabethan song.

TIME CHART 1600 TO 1720 A.D.
(Scale 1 inch = 30 years)



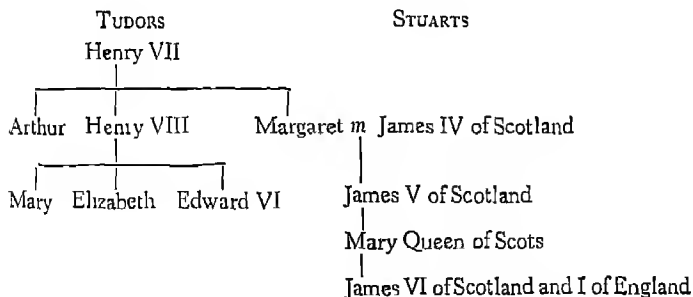
STUART BRITAIN PARLIAMENT AND THE KING

CHAPTER I

SCOTTISH KINGS AND ENGLISH PARLIAMENTS

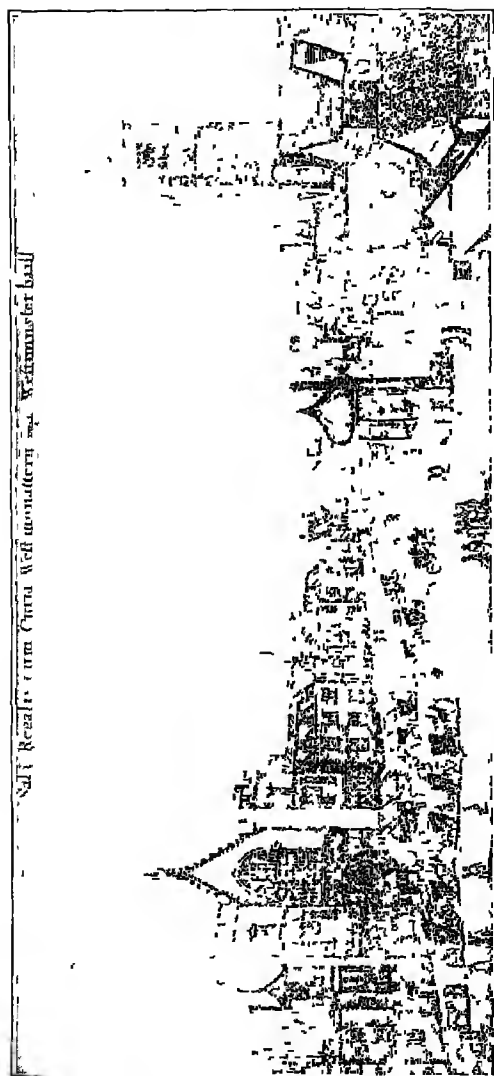
QUEEN ELIZABETH was the last of the Tudors, and when she died (1603) the heir to the English throne was King James VI of Scotland, the son of Mary Queen of Scots. Thus at last (three centuries after the time of Wallace, Bruce, and the Treaty of Northampton¹) England and Scotland were ruled by a single king, but that king was a Scot, and not an Englishman. Even now the two countries were not really united, as Scotland kept its own Parliament for another hundred years, but this union under the same king was the beginning of the "United Kingdom", and to show that this was so, the English cross of Saint George was combined with the Scottish cross of Saint Andrew to form a new flag—the "Union Jack."

TUDORS AND STUARTS



THE WISEST FOOL IN CHRISTENDOM—In 1603 James VI (or James I, as he was to his English subjects) had been a

¹ See pp 122-4, 128



WESTMINSTER IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY
 From a print made in 1647 (*British Museum*)

king for thirty-five years, and on the whole he had governed Scotland well, though he quarrelled from time to time with the Scottish lords and the Scottish Church. But in England he began his rule wrongly from the very first. Even on his way from Edinburgh to take up his new crown he ordered a thief to be hanged, not realising that in England the king had no right to execute anybody without a trial. Moreover, he soon showed his English subjects that he had a different idea of kingship from theirs. Elizabeth and the other Tudors had governed very firmly, but very tactfully; they had been really very powerful, but they had not often boasted of their power. Instead, they pretended to be doing what their people wanted, though often they did exactly as they wished themselves. Moreover, the Tudors and their subjects frequently did want the same sort of things. Thus, for example, both Elizabeth and the English people were keen on the war with Spain, and while that war continued there was little opportunity for the queen and her subjects to be quarrelling.

James I, however, was not so tactful. He was a learned man, fond of the study of books, but he did not understand how to manage men. For this reason Henry IV of France nicknamed him "the wisest fool in Christendom," and from the beginning of his reign in England he showed both his wisdom and his folly. He had read, and even written, books about kingship, and he believed firmly in the doctrine of the *Divine Right of Kings*—that kings were appointed by God Himself to do His work, or, as James said to Parliament, "kings are not only God's lieutenants upon earth, and sit upon God's throne, but even by God Himself they are called gods." But his learning only annoyed his subjects, since he was always talking about it, and telling Parliament that it must bow to his will.

THE GROWING POWER OF PARLIAMENT.—Such treatment was all very well for the Scottish Parliament, which had little power. In England, however, Parliament was becoming more and more powerful every year, and even Elizabeth had had to be careful how she treated it. As we have seen, the Tudors had relied much on the country

gentry, who, as Justices of the Peace, had a share in helping to govern the country ; and they were not willing to do whatever their new king ordered. Many of these country gentry were Members of Parliament, and were as keen students of kingship as the king himself. Consequently they found fault, in Parliament, with James when he tried to act like a despot. James therefore tried to manage without a Parliament, and for ten years (from 1611 to 1621) he actually called only one Parliament, and that one refused to pass any laws unless James promised to be less despotic. It lasted only two months, and passed no laws at all, and it is therefore known as the *Addled Parliament* (1614).

JAMES AND THE CHURCH.—In the first part of his reign, however, James quarrelled most with those who disagreed with him about religion. There were still many Englishmen who were dissatisfied with Elizabeth's settlement of religious affairs, and all of them hoped to be better treated by James. The Catholics expected him to favour them, because he was the son of the Catholic Mary Queen of Scots, the *Puritans* (as those men were called who wished to "purify" the English Church still further from Catholic ways) expected James to support them, because he had been brought up in Scotland as a Presbyterian ; and, of course, the rest of the people expected him, as king, to uphold Queen Elizabeth's settlement. At the very beginning of his reign, James tried to settle these religious differences by calling a church conference at Hampton Court (1604). But the *Hampton Court Conference* found the religious differences too great to settle, and when it broke up it had reached no agreement. Thus it was a failure, though it had one very important result—the publication (in 1611) of the new translation of the Bible, addressed to James I, which is known as the *Authorised Version*.

The year after the Hampton Court Conference saw a still more dangerous quarrel with the Catholics, some of whom conspired together in the *Gunpowder Plot* to blow up king and Parliament together, and make England Catholic again. The arrest of Guy Fawkes in the cellars

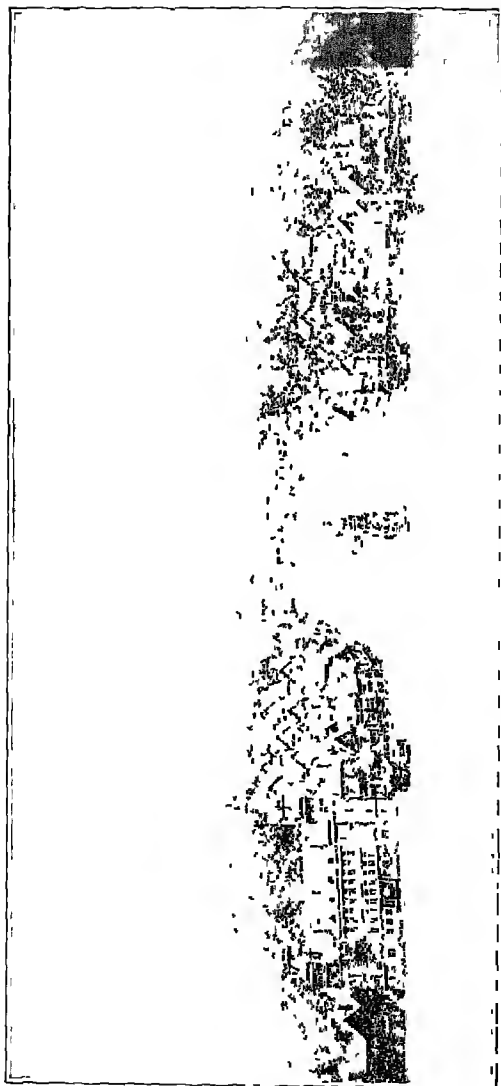
at the Houses of Parliament on November 4th, 1603, ruined the plot, and thenceforth the Catholics were worse off than before, since the *Penal Laws* against them were made stricter than ever.

JAMES AND THE SPANIARDS.—Thus the first part of James's reign was full of uneasiness. After a time he relaxed the Penal Laws, since he was seeking to make an alliance with Spain, the greatest Catholic country in Europe at that time. Spain, however, had only just ceased to be the national enemy of England. Consequently the English people, remembering their victories over Spain under Elizabeth, became still more discontented with Elizabeth's successor.

THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR.—In 1618 James actually executed Sir Walter Raleigh, the great Elizabethan hero, for fighting with Spaniards in South America; and when, in the same year, a war broke out in Germany (it lasted till 1648 and is known as the *Thirty Years' War*), the English wanted their king to fight on the Protestant side, against Spain, which was allied with the Catholics. For the first year or two the Protestant leader in Germany was the *Elector Palatine, Frederick William*, the son-in-law of James I, whom James was willing enough to help. But he dared not do so, for fear of losing the friendship of Spain, and Frederick William was driven out of his dominions.

JAMES'S QUARRELS WITH PARLIAMENT.—This refusal of James to fight the Spaniards led him, at last, into real trouble with Parliament, which he summoned in 1621. Instead of granting him the money which he wanted, Parliament began at once to make complaints. They complained that Bacon, the great writer and philosopher, who was at this time Lord Chancellor, had been accepting bribes, and had not conducted his court as fairly as the chief lawyer in the land ought to have done, and they *impeached*¹ Bacon and had him dismissed from office. They also complained that the king had granted too many *monopolies*, especially to his favourites. These monopolies

¹ For the meaning of "impeachment," see pp 152 and 157.



A MODEL OF CHARING CROSS IN 1620.
 [Looking down Whitehall towards Westminster Abbey]
(Reproduced by courtesy of the London Museum)

were the sole right of selling certain articles, and the *monopolist* to whom the right was given always raised the price too high. This caused undue hardship to the poor, especially as there were monopolies in necessities such as salt, and the king had to give way. The worst offenders were imprisoned, and fewer monopolies were granted in the future.

Finally, Parliament complained of the foreign policy of James, and in this he refused to yield to them. They persisted in urging him to declare war on Spain, and he persisted in refusing. He even ordered them to cease discussing foreign affairs, saying that that was the king's business only, and not theirs. In reply Parliament passed a resolution declaring that "the liberties, franchises, privileges, and jurisdiction of Parliament are the ancient and undoubted right and inheritance of the subjects of England," and that they might discuss anything they liked. Enraged at this, James went down to the House of Commons, himself took out the resolution from the Journal of the House, and dissolved Parliament, which did not meet again for three years. Even then there was another dispute (again about monopolies), so that when James died, in 1625, Parliament was in a quarrelsome mood, and the new king, Charles I, needed to be very tactful indeed if he was to avoid serious trouble.

CHARLES I—Charles I, however, was even less tactful than his father, and his conduct angered Parliament from the first. In the first place he continued to shower honours on the favourite of James I, *George Villiers*, the *Duke of Buckingham*. So powerful did the Duke become that he was more truly the ruler of England than Charles, and he ruled with little thought for the wishes of the people. Consequently Parliament tried to bring about his overthrow. In 1626 Buckingham was impeached, and in order to save him, Charles dissolved Parliament before it had granted him the money he needed. For the next two years Charles ruled without a Parliament, and so he had to obtain money without its consent. Although Parliament had granted him *tunnage* and *poundage* (that is, the money

obtained from duties on imports) for one year only, Charles went on collecting it when the first year had passed ; he also compelled many of his subjects to "lend" him money, and punished those who refused by "billeting" soldiers or sailors in their houses or by sending them to prison, often after trying them, not in the proper law courts, but in military courts, which were not bound to be as fair as the ordinary courts.

THE PETITION OF RIGHT, 1628.—Still, even these methods failed to provide all the money which Charles needed for governing the country, and in 1628 he was compelled to summon Parliament again and ask it for supplies. Once more, however, Parliament followed its former policy of insisting on "redress before supplies," and before considering the king's request for money, it presented him with the famous *Petition of Right*, in which they asked him to admit that it was the right of every Englishman :

- 1 Not to pay any tax or loan which had not been granted in Parliament.
- 2 Not to be put in prison unlawfully.
- 3 Not to have troops billeted on him
4. Not to be tried by martial law in peace-time.

Buckingham advised the king to refuse this Petition, and Parliament continued to attack him. In order to save his favourite, Charles granted the Petition, and then dismissed Parliament—though he need not have done so, as Buckingham was murdered by a private enemy immediately afterwards. However, the Petition of Right was now law, and it has been regarded ever since as one of the most important laws of the land.

In the next year Charles made one more effort to come to an agreement with Parliament. Again, however, it began to criticise him as soon as it met, and passed three resolutions declaring that any one who paid tonnage and poundage without the consent of Parliament, or who advised any one else to do so, or who proposed changes in religion, deserved the death of a traitor. By mentioning

religion Parliament had simply made the quarrel more difficult to heal. Charles therefore dissolved it yet again, and for the next eleven years England was ruled without any Parliament at all.

Books for further reading

GENERAL

Macaulay · HISTORY OF ENGLAND (*Chapter I*)

E M Wilmot-Buxton THE STRUGGLE WITH THE CROWN (*Harrap*)

A E McKilliam CHARLES I (*Harrap*)

K Bell. PURITANISM AND LIBERTY (*Bell*)

NOVELS

Sir Walter Scott. THE FORTUNES OF NIGEL

A Dumas THE THREE MUSKETEERS

W Harrison Ainsworth GUY FAWKES, THE LANCASHIRE WITCHES,
THE STAR CHAMBER

SOURCE READING

Parliament Petitions the King

"They do therefore humbly pray your Most Excellent Majesty, that no man hereafter be compelled to make or yield any gift, loan, benevolence, tax, or such like charge, without common consent by Act of Parliament, and that none be called to make answer, or take such oath, or to give attendance, or be confined, or otherwise molested or disquieted concerning the same, or for refusal thereof, and that no freeman, in any such manner as is before-mentioned, be imprisoned or detained, and that your Majesty will be pleased to remove the said soldiers and mariners, and that your people may not be so burdened in time to come, and that the foresaid commissions for proceeding by martial law, may be revoked and annulled, and that hereafter no commissions of like nature may issue foith to any person or persons whatsoever, to be executed as aforesaid, lest by colour of them any of your Majesty's subjects be destroyed or put to death, contrary to the laws and franchise of the land."¹

Exercises on the Source Reading

1 Paraphrase the passage into modern English

2 Write notes on benevolence, "such like charge," "common consent," martial law, franchise

¹ From Gardiner, *Constitutional Documents of the Puritan Revolution*

3. From what source is this passage taken? What is its date?
4. Divide this passage into its four sections, numbering each. Why were these four particular grievances chosen for complaint by Parliament?
5. To what is Parliament referring by the words "gift, loan"?
6. From the words "in any such manner as is before-mentioned" what can you gather about what has come before this passage?
7. Do you think that this law forbids the king to collect tannage and poundage without Parliament's consent? Give your reasons.
8. What is there in this passage to remind you of English history in the Middle Ages?

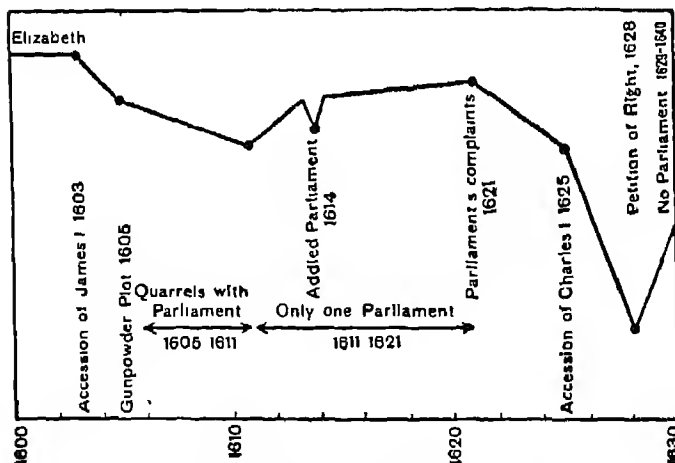
GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER I

Charts and Maps

Make Time Charts to illustrate the following

1. Kings and Parliaments, 1603-1629
2. The reign of Charles I (i) 1625-1629 (to be completed later)
3. Affairs on the Continent of Europe (i) 1600-1629 (leave space to complete later)

Copy into your exercise book the following Graph



GRAPH ILLUSTRATING THE FORTUNES OF THE
STUART KINGS, 1603-1630.

Draw a Map of Europe in the early seventeenth century, showing all the chief states, and marking differently those which took part in the Thirty Years War

Questions

I

1 What do you know about the following Added Parliament, Hampton Court Conference, Authorised Version, Gunpowder Plot, George Villiers Duke of Buckingham, the Thirty Years War?

2 What is the meaning of the following Divine Right of Kings, Justice of the Peace, Puritans, Penal Laws, Elector Palatine, Lord Chancellor, impeachment, monopolies, tunnage and poundage, "redress before supplies," foreign policy?

3. What dealings had James I with foreign countries, and for what reasons did his foreign policy displease his British subjects?

4 What men were impeached by Parliament between 1603 and 1630, and why?

5 In what different ways did Charles I try to obtain money without the consent of Parliament between 1625 and 1630?

6 Why was the Petition of Right passed? What did it say, and why was it so important?

7 Make a list, with dates, of occasions on which James I and Charles I quarrelled with Parliament. What was the disagreement about in each case?

8 Learn by heart the beginning of the Preface to the Authorised Version of the Bible

II

1 For what different reasons was James I likely to govern (a) well (b) badly, in England?

2 What were the chief mistakes made by (a) James I, (b) Charles I, in dealing with their English subjects?

3. "The wisest fool in Christendom" discuss how far this is a good description of James I

4 Why did the first two Stuarts keep summoning Parliament afresh when they disagreed with it so much?

5 Discuss whether the kings or the Parliaments were more in the wrong between 1603 and 1629

6 How far is it true, and how far untrue, to describe England and Scotland as the "United Kingdom" after 1603?

CHAPTER II

THE DESPOTIC RULE OF CHARLES I (1629-1642)

ELEVEN YEARS WITHOUT A PARLIAMENT.—During the first four years of his reign Charles I had found that he could not agree with Parliament, and he therefore decided to



A SEVENTEENTH-CENTURY RATCATCHER

(From Rollins' *A Pepysian Garland*, Cambridge University Press)

do without a Parliament altogether. He did so for eleven years, from 1629 to 1640—a much longer time than England has ever been without a Parliament before or since, from the time when Parliament first came into existence. In this way Charles hoped to be free to govern the kingdom

in what he considered the proper way; but government requires money, and from the first he found that he had not money enough. He had a certain amount of fixed income from long-established feudal dues, but this was not nearly sufficient; and he therefore found it necessary to discover other methods of raising funds. By granting the Petition of Right in 1628 he had undertaken not to collect taxes which had not been granted by Parliament, and most of his subjects thought that he had no right to collect tunnage and poundage, though Charles maintained that this was not a tax, and went on collecting it.

Even with tunnage and poundage, however, Charles was far too poor to govern well, and he therefore revived old methods of obtaining money, which had been out of use for centuries, and which the people considered unjust, however lawful they may have been. For one thing, he revived the old forest laws of the Middle Ages which forbade the people to trespass on the royal forests. Since the Middle Ages the forest boundaries had gradually become less, and much of the land which had once belonged to the king had now been for centuries in the possession of his subjects. Charles now proclaimed that all who had thus "encroached" on the royal forests must pay a fine; and by this means some money was raised, but many men were made bitter against the king. Besides the Forest Laws, Charles also revived what was known as "*Distrain of Knighthood*," by which, in the Middle Ages, all who owned land worth forty pounds a year were fined if they failed to have themselves made knights. By the time of Charles I forty pounds was worth far less than it had been in medieval times, and thus many men now paid fines for this offence who were not nearly wealthy enough to be knights. Again, therefore, Charles lost more by the discontent of his subjects than he gained in revenue.

SHIP MONEY—A number of obsolete measures were revived in this way by Charles I; but much the most important of them all was the collection of *Ship Money*. In the Middle Ages, when the English Channel swarmed with pirates, it had been customary to compel the Channel

ports to pay the cost of their defence against them. This ship money had not been taken for a very long time, but Charles now ordered it to be collected, partly on the excuse that there were once again many pirates in the Channel. In the next year (1635), however, Charles had ship money collected from inland as well as coast districts, and a number of people refused to pay. Chief of these was *John Hampden*, a Buckinghamshire landowner. He was arrested and tried, and in 1638 was found guilty of breaking the law. But as five of the twelve judges who had tried him decided in his favour, although they knew that the king had the right to dismiss them whenever he wished, it was considered that Hampden had really had the best of the contest with Charles, and he certainly had encouraged many others to resist what they regarded as unlawful taxation.

THOMAS WENTWORTH, EARL OF STRAFFORD — Thus, by the end of the 'thirties, Charles had angered many of his subjects by his unjust demands on their purses. At the same time many others were angered for different reasons. In this despotic rule of his, he was being helped by two men, *Thomas Wentworth* and *William Laud*. Wentworth had been a Member of Parliament, and had even sided against the king at the time of the Petition of Right. Since then, however, he had decided that a despotic king was better than no government at all, and he therefore changed sides. Charles sent him to rule the north of England, as President of the *Council of the North*. His motto was "Thorough," and in the north he carried it out by punishing lawbreakers without mercy, and establishing a really strong government, though he did it in a very despotic way. In 1633 he was sent over to Ireland to do the same thing, and here, too, he annoyed the people by his severity, although he probably governed Ireland better than it had ever been governed before. He made his despotism possible (both in England and in Ireland) by maintaining a powerful army, and he tried to persuade Charles to do the same for the whole country. At first Charles was unwilling to go to such lengths, but he introduced into England a good deal of

the "thorough" despotism of Wentworth—for example, by reviving the old *Star Chamber*, which was now used once again to condemn (often after a very unfair trial) those with whom the ordinary law courts could not have dealt severely enough for the king's liking.

WILLIAM LAUD.—The other adviser of Charles I in this period of despotic rule, William Laud, was appointed Bishop of London in 1628 and Archbishop of Canterbury in 1633. Laud was as eager to establish despotism in the



ARCHBISHOP LAUD DINING ON THE EARS OF PRYNNE, ETC.

(A cartoon of 1634)

Prynne was a Puritan who had both ears cut off (by order of the Star Chamber) for writing books against Laud and the Court

(From a print in the British Museum)

Church as Wentworth was to do so in the state. In particular, he wished to compel all churchmen to worship in the same way, and so do away with the different forms of worship which he thought were ruining the Church. Queen Elizabeth, as we have seen,¹ had planned her Church settlement so as to satisfy as many of her people as possible, and the result was that the Church of England included men who were almost Roman Catholics, men who were almost *Independents* (as those sects were called which wished each congregation to settle its own affairs, and not belong to any central church), and all kinds of Christians in

¹ See p 218

between these two extremes To Laud's mind a Church so disunited was no church at all, and he therefore tried to enforce uniformity of worship Naturally, his attempt offended all those who disagreed with his particular forms of worship; and because, as a matter of fact, he wanted more ceremonial in divine service, he was suspected (and the king was suspected along with him) of trying to re-introduce Roman Catholicism.

LAUD, THE SCOTS, AND THE NATIONAL COVENANT —The changes which Laud was trying to introduce were not such as we nowadays should regard as being particularly "Catholic." They included having the altar at the east end of the church, making the sign of the cross in baptism, and similar practices which are quite usual to-day. But they annoyed the Puritans in the English Church; and, still more, they annoyed the Puritans of Scotland, when Laud tried to introduce them there In Scotland, too, they had another complaint against Laud's changes. Even the Puritans in the English Church believed in *episcopacy*—that is, church government by bishops. In Scotland, however, most of the people were Presbyterians, and wanted no bishops at all Against their wills they had accepted a moderate form of *episcopacy* from James I, but it was very unpopular, and when, in 1637, Laud and Charles I ordered that a new and rather more Catholic prayer book should be used, and that the Scottish bishops should have greater power, the Scots refused to obey. A Church Assembly which met at Glasgow not only refused to accept these fresh changes, but also abolished the bishoprics which already existed in Scotland Finally, in the year 1638, thousands of Scots signed the *National Covenant*, by which they agreed to defend their own Church and religion, and to resist Catholicism, with all their might—if necessary, even by fighting

THE BISHOPS' WARS.—It was soon seen that fighting would really be necessary, and in 1639 and 1640 the Scots fought against Charles two short wars, which, since the Scots were struggling against *episcopacy*, are known as the *Bishops' Wars*. In these wars the odds were all in the

Scots' favour The king was short of money, and at that time there was no regular army in England; and the English Parliament was not likely to grant him either an army or the money for it to fight the Scots, since most Englishmen agreed with the Scots and not with the king. The Scottish army, on the other hand, was commanded by *Alexander Leslie*, a skilful general who had learnt his trade in the Thirty Years' War on the Continent. After defeating the king's forces at *Newburn-on-Tyne*, the Scots occupied Northumberland and Durham, and refused to move unless they were paid to do so.

THE SHORT AND THE LONG PARLIAMENTS.—What the Scots really wanted was religious freedom; but they were very wise to ask for money as well, since they knew that Charles's only hope of obtaining money was by calling a Parliament, and a Parliament, they realised, would support them against the king. In 1640 Charles summoned Parliament at last, and after eleven years of neglect, Parliament was in no good humour. As in the old days, it insisted on "redress before supplies"; again, as in the old days, Charles dissolved it in anger; and this Parliament, which lasted only three weeks, was called the *Short Parliament*. But anger brought the king no money, and the Scottish army was still in the north of England. Charles was therefore compelled to summon another Parliament, which lasted, not three weeks, but thirteen years or more, and became known to history as the *Long Parliament*.

THE END OF THE KING'S DESPOTISM.—One of the first actions of the Long Parliament was to make peace with the Scots, who left England in 1641. Then it set about "redressing" its grievances, and the king's shortage of funds compelled him to agree to almost all their demands. First they passed a *Triennial Act*, which made it illegal for a king in future to do without a Parliament for more than three years at a time. Then they attacked those who had been the king's agents in his despotism. Wentworth (who had been made Earl of Strafford in 1640) was executed in 1641, and in the same year Laud was imprisoned, though he was not executed for another four years. Next the

Long Parliament abolished the oppressive courts which Charles had used against his subjects—the Star Chamber, the Council of the North, and the *High Commission Court*, which Laud and the king had used to punish those who opposed their changes in church matters

ROYALISTS IN PARLIAMENT.—So far, all the members of Parliament had been agreed about what had been done. Now, however, the extremer members recommended steps which seemed to the rest too disloyal, and Parliament split into two parties—Royalists and their opponents. The first cause of this disagreement was the *Root and Branch Bill*, which was introduced into Parliament to abolish the bishops and the prayer book—that is, to reform the Church of England in its roots and branches. This caused so much quarrelling among the members of Parliament that it was dropped, but fresh differences soon arose on another matter. This was the *Grand Remonstrance*, which was introduced into Parliament in November 1641. It was a list of all the actions of Charles which had annoyed Parliament since the beginning of the reign, and the House of Commons remained united on this first part of the remonstrance. The second part, however, suggested reforms which many of the members of Parliament thought too severe, and was only passed by 159 votes to 148. The minority considered that they had now gone far enough in opposing the king, and from this time they formed a Royalist party in the House of Commons.

THE FIVE MEMBERS AND THE OUTBREAK OF WAR.—The non-royalist members of Parliament, meanwhile, continued to make fresh demands of the king, and Charles tried to arrest five of their leaders—including *Pym*, who was easily the most important man in Parliament at that time. The five members escaped by boat to the City of London, which was strongly against the king, but Charles had made himself still more unpopular by this attempt. Both Parliament and the king now felt that war was not far off, and both tried to make sure of controlling the *militia* (as the county levies of troops were called) when war should begin. Parliament demanded that the militia

should be commanded by officers whom they should choose. The king naturally refused, and both sides began to prepare armies. Finally, in August 1642, Charles raised his standard at Nottingham, and the Civil War had begun.

Books for further reading

GENERAL

Macaulay . HISTORY OF ENGLAND, Chapter I.

Macaulay . ESSAY ON HAMPTON

A. E. McKillop . CHARLES I (*Harrop*)

D. N. Smith . CHARACTERS FROM THE HISTORIES AND MEMOIRS OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY (*Oxford Univ. Press*).

K. Bell . PURITANISM AND LIBERTY (*Bell*)

NOVELS

Sir Walter Scott . LEGEND OF MONTROSE

Marjorie Bowen . THE GOVERNOR OF ENGLAND (*Methuen*)

M. E. Braddon . IN HIGH PLACES (*Hutchinson*)

D. G. McChesney . KATHLEEN CLARE (*Blackwood*).

SOURCE READING

The Scottish National Covenant, 1638

"We noblemen, barons, gentlemen, burgesses, ministers and commons under subscribing, considering divers times before, and especially at this time, the danger of the true reformed religion, . . . do hereby profess, and before God, his angels, and the world, solemnly declare, that with our whole hearts we agree and resolve all the days of our life constantly to adhere unto and to defend the aforesaid true religion, and (forbearing the practice of all novations already introduced in the matters of the worship of God, or approbation of the corruptions of the public government of the Kirk, or civil places and power of kirkmen, till they be tried and allowed in free assemblies and in Parliaments) to labour by all means lawful to recover the purity and liberty of the Gospel as it was established and professed before the aforesaid novations; and because, after due examination, we plainly perceive and undoubtedly believe that the innovations . . . do sensibly tend to the re-establishing of the popish religion and tyranny, and to the subversion and ruin of the true reformed religion, and of our liberties, laws and estates . . . we promise and swear by the great name of the Lord our God, to continue in the profession and obedience of

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the aforesaid religion, that we shall defend the same, and resist all these contrary errors and corruptions according to our vocation, and to the utmost of that power that God hath put into our hands, all the days of our life" ¹

Exercises on the Source Reading

1. Write a short summary of the meaning of this passage
2. Write notes on the following barons, gentlemen, burgesses, ministers, commons, novations, Kirk, civil places.
3. For what reasons, and by whom, was this "profession" made?
4. Why was it "especially at this time" that there was "danger" to "the true reformed religion"?
5. What were the "novations already introduced in the matters of the worship of God"? By whom were they introduced, and why?
6. Is it right to say that the "novations" did "sensibly tend to the re-establishing of the popish religion and tyranny"? Give reasons for your answer
7. What is meant by "free assemblies" (line 11)?
8. What were the results of the National Covenant?
9. Learn by heart lines 14-24 of the extract ("Because, after due examination" to the end)

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER II

Charts and Maps

Make Time Charts to illustrate the following

1. The Reign of Charles I (11) 1629-1642 (continued from Chapter I)
2. Scottish history, 1600-1640
3. Affairs on the Continent of Europe, (11) 1630-1650 (continued from Chapter I)

Draw Graphs to illustrate

1. The power of the king, 1629-1642
2. Discontent in England, 1629-1642, about (a) religion, (b) taxation (two separate graphs)
3. Discontent in Scotland, 1629-1642

Draw a Map of the north of England and south of Scotland to illustrate the Bishops' Wars

Questions

I

1. What do you know about Hampden, Council of the North, Star Chamber, High Commission Court, National Covenant, Alexander Leslie, battle of Newburn-on-Tyne, Short Parliament, Long Parliament, Triennial Act, Pym?
2. What is the meaning of the following. Dismantling of Knighthood, ship money, Independents, Presbyterianism, episcopacy, Root and Branch Bill, Grand Remonstrance, militia?

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- 3 Write an account of the life of Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford For what reasons was he important?
- 4 Write an account of the life of Archbishop Laud For what reasons was he important?
- 5 In what ways did Laud offend the Scots?
- 6 What were the Bishops' Wars? How were they caused, and what important results did they have?
- 7 Trace carefully, step by step, the events in 1640-1642 which helped to bring about the Civil War

II

- 1 For what different purposes did the king need money in the seventeenth century?
- 2 Make a list of the obsolete ways of raising money which Charles I revived, in each case discuss whether the king was right or wrong
- 3 Why did Charles I bring to an end his eleven years' rule without Parliament?
- 4 Summarise the arguments on each side in the quarrel between Charles I and the Scots
- 5 At the end of the Civil War Charles I was described by the Parliamentarians as "a tyrant, traitor, murderer, and public enemy to the good people of this nation" Do you agree with this verdict or not? Give your reasons

CHAPTER III

THE CIVIL WAR AND THE COMMONWEALTH

THE TWO SIDES—For four years (from 1642 to 1646) England was torn by civil war, and there was no proper government in the country. The Royalists were fighting for government by the king, the Parliamentarians (or "Roundheads" as they were sometimes called, because some of them wore their hair short, as we do now) were fighting for government by Parliament. But besides this disunion in the country, each side was divided within its own ranks. There were extreme Royalists, who believed in Divine Right and who were prepared to obey the king at all costs, and there were other Royalists who wanted the king to rule, but to rule with the advice of Parliament. Among this latter class were such men as *Lord Falkland*

and *Edward Hyde* (later Earl of Clarendon), both of whom had been Parliamentarians at the beginning of the Long Parliament. In the same way, there were Parliamentarians who only wanted Parliament to advise the king, and others who wanted it to control him. There was also an extreme party of Parliamentarians called *Levellers*, who believed

that all men should be equal, and this party became stronger as the war went on.



A PARLIAMENT HORSE-SOLDIER

ROYALISTS AND ROUND-HEADS.—From the beginning of the war each side obtained most of its supporters from different classes and different districts. Roughly speaking, the north and west of England supported the king and the south and east supported Parliament. On the whole, this was unfortunate for the Royalists, for in those days the richest parts of the country were around London, while the north-westerly districts were very poor. London, with all its wealth, was in the

hands of Parliament, and London was then, as now, the chief port and the chief business centre in the kingdom. Another important port in the east and one in the west sided with Parliament, and so enabled it to obtain food and ammunition for its army, whereas the Royalists found it more and more difficult to obtain supplies. These two ports were Hull and Plymouth, and the king began his campaign by trying to capture them both. The ports were valuable to Parliament in another way, since they

enabled it to collect the customs duties on imports and exports, with the result that Parliament always had better means of obtaining money than the king had, especially since the merchant classes, which paid the duties, were almost wholly Parliamentarian.

There were, however, advantages on the other side. Most of the nobles and country gentlemen were Royalists, and so were the two universities of Oxford and Cambridge. Both the gentry and the colleges were most generous in helping the king as much as they could, often by giving him



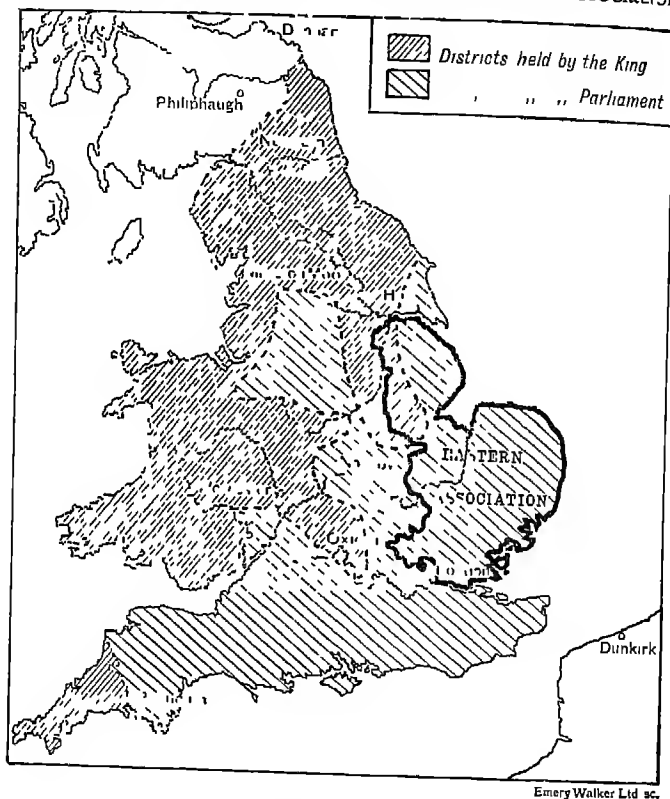
CAVALIERS IN ARMOUR

their gold and silver plate to sell. This supply of wealth, however, was bound to be exhausted sooner or later, so that the king became poorer and poorer as the war went on.

THE FIGHTING —At first the king had the better of the fighting—largely because his army consisted mainly of people whose families were used to war, whereas the Parliament's troops, consisting chiefly of men more used to trade than to fighting, took longer to learn how to behave in battle. Moreover, the first Parliamentary commander (the *Earl of Essex*) was too hesitating to be a good general. To remedy both these defects, a year or so after the war began the gentry of the eastern counties formed the *Eastern Association*, which relied principally on men who

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were keen Puritans, really anxious for Parliament to win. These men were drilled into a suitable spirit for war, and placed under skilled officers. Chief of the latter was *Oliver Cromwell*, under whose command the Eastern Association



BRITAIN DURING THE CIVIL WAR

began to perform such feats that his men were soon known as Ironsides.

THE SOLEMN LEAGUE AND COVENANT.—In the year 1643 Parliament obtained a valuable ally. This was the Scots, who were by now convinced that their Presby-

terian religion would not be safe until Charles was beaten. They therefore made with Parliament an alliance called the *Solemn League and Covenant*, by which they promised to fight for the English Parliament on condition that the latter should accept the terms of the Scottish National Covenant of 1638 (see pp. 272 and 275-6). In 1644 the Scots (under Alexander Leslie, who, as we have seen,¹ had learned generalship in the Thirty Years War) and the Ironsides (under Cromwell) won a great victory over the Royalists at the battle of *Marston Moor*, in Yorkshire. Cromwell was now rapidly coming to the front as the chief of the Parliamentary generals, and in 1645 he carried out the reorganisation of the whole army of the Parliament on the model of the Eastern Association. Almost at once this *New Model Army* (as it was called) won the decisive battle of the war, at *Naseby*, in Northamptonshire. In the same year the king's chances of help from Scotland were ruined when Leslie defeated (at *Philiphaugh*) the Highland clans who had risen in the Royalist cause under the *Marquis of Montrose*. The king was now beaten beyond hope, though Royalists held out for several more years in various parts of the kingdom, especially in the great houses of the gentry. In 1646 Charles surrendered to the Scots, who were then besieging Newark, in Nottinghamshire, thinking that he would obtain better terms from them than from the English Parliament. But still the king refused to accept the terms of the *Solemn League and Covenant*, and the Scots handed him over to the English.

QUARRELS AMONG THE PARLIAMENTARIANS · EXECUTION OF THE KING — By this time, however, the disagreements among the Parliamentarians were making themselves felt. Most of the Members of Parliament (which continued to meet at Westminster) were Presbyterians; most of the army officers, on the other hand, were *Independents*, or, as we should say now, Congregationalists, believing that each congregation should rule itself. Consequently, Parliament, which had most right to make the laws which were to settle the country into peace again, was opposed by the army;

¹ See p. 273

and by this time the army was much stronger than the Parliament. In December 1648 an army officer (Colonel Pride) expelled all the Presbyterians from the House of Commons, and the Independent remainder (which its enemies ridiculed by calling it the *Rump*) pretended that they were a real Parliament and undertook the government of the country. It was this Rump which tried the king for treason, and on January 30th, 1649, had him executed.

THE COMMONWEALTH.—But it was still necessary to establish a government for the country, which was no longer a monarchy, but a republic or *commonwealth*. A commonwealth it remained (under the control of a *Council of State* containing forty-one members) for the next four years; but they were four years of trouble and strife, filled with struggles against enemies at home and abroad.

IRELAND AND THE COMMONWEALTH.—First of all the Commonwealth had to deal with Ireland and Scotland, both of which countries refused to acknowledge its authority, and proclaimed the dead king's son as Charles II. Oliver Cromwell was put in command of the army which was sent to subdue Ireland in 1649, and he was ruthless in his treatment of the Irish rebels. But in the next year he was withdrawn to lead an army against the Scots, and his daughter's husband, *Ireton*, completed the conquest of Ireland for the Commonwealth. He did so in a manner very unfair to the Irish people, who were therefore more bitter than ever against the English government. Two-thirds of the land was taken from its Royalist owners (especially those who were Roman Catholics), and given to supporters of the Commonwealth; and this (like similar confiscations which had already been made under Elizabeth and James I) led to great trouble in Ireland in later times.

SCOTLAND AND THE COMMONWEALTH.—Meanwhile the resistance of the Scots was being overcome. There was no longer anything to fear from Montrose and his Highlanders, and Montrose himself was captured and executed in 1650. Cromwell, however, was having much more difficulty with the Lowland Scots, whose general, Leslie, forced him to take up a difficult position near *Dunbar*,

where he was in grave danger of defeat. But in trying to make sure of victory, Leslie blundered, Cromwell saw his chance at once, and on September 3rd, 1650, he won a victory which gave him Edinburgh. In the next year the Scots invaded England, advancing farther and farther south, with Cromwell following them. At last, on the anniversary of the battle of Dunbar, he overtook and routed the Scottish army at the battle of *Worcester*. Cromwell described this battle as a "crowning mercy," and in fact it did remove the most serious enemy of the Commonwealth at home.

HOLLAND AND THE COMMONWEALTH.—In 1651, however, the Commonwealth found itself confronted with fresh difficulties abroad. There was great rivalry at this time between the English and the Dutch in matters of trade. The English East India Company was the chief competitor of the Dutch East India Company, and in addition the shipping merchants of Holland had almost a monopoly of the carrying trade in Europe. English merchants, however, were trying to compete with them, and in 1651 the Dutch made with Denmark a treaty which was meant to keep English ships from sharing in the trade of the Baltic. The Commonwealth therefore passed a *Navigation Act* which declared that in future all English imports and exports must be carried in English ships, or in ships belonging to the country from which the imports were brought. As hardly any Dutch produce was then imported to England, this meant that the Dutch shippers lost their English freights. In 1652 war was declared between the two countries, and lasted for two years. There were many battles, all at sea, between the rival admirals *Blake* and *Van Tromp*, but neither side won a decisive victory. In 1654, however, when peace was made, the Dutch were compelled to agree to the *Navigation Act*.

THE END OF THE COMMONWEALTH.—It was not the Commonwealth which ended the Dutch War, for by that time it had proved itself incapable of ruling the country efficiently. For one thing, the Council of State, with its forty-one members, was too big to be united; and this was

even more true of the Rump Parliament, which continued sitting till 1653, though it represented the wishes of the people less as time went on. Worse still, it was failing to provide what the country needed most—strong government. In 1653, therefore, the army took things into its own hands, and Cromwell, at the head of a troop of soldiers, went down to the Parliament House and expelled the members. Thus, at last, the Long Parliament came to a shameful end, and in the same year Cromwell was made *Protector*, so that Britain had once more a single ruler, who was really strong enough to govern.

Books for further reading

GENERAL

- Carlyle LETTERS AND SPEECHES OF CROMWELL
 D N Smith CHARACTERS FROM THE HISTORIES AND MEMOIRS OF THE
 SEVENTEENTH CENTURY (*Oxford Univ Press*)
 C. H Firth CROMWELL (*Putnam*)
 Hilaire Belloc OLIVER CROMWELL (*Burn's Sixpenny Library*).
 L W Lyde THE AGE OF BLAKE (*Black*)

NOVELS

- Sir Walter Scott WOODSTOCK
 Marjorie Bowen THE GOVERNOR OF ENGLAND (*Methuen*).
 W Harrison Ainsworth BOSCOBEL
 J. S Fletcher WHEN CHARLES I WAS KING (*Gay and Bird*).
 Edna Lyall TO RIGHT THE WRONG (*Hurst and Blackett*).
 Edna Lyall IN SPITE OF ALL (*Hurst and Blackett*)
 Edgar Wallace THE BLACK AVONS (*Gill*)

SOURCE READING

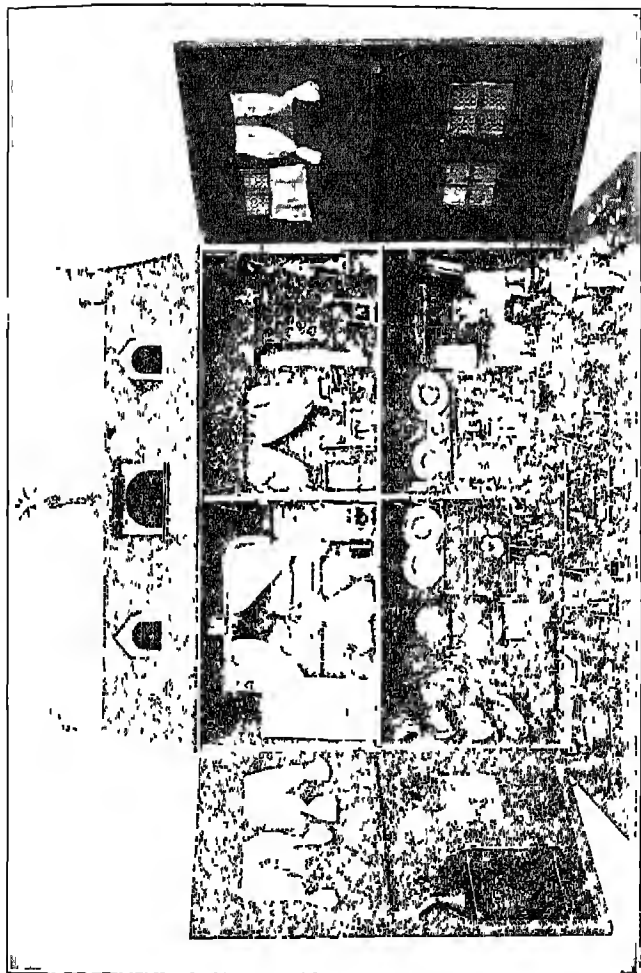
A Letter from Oliver Cromwell

"For the Honourable William Lenthall, Esquire, Speaker of the
 Parliament of England These

"NEAR WORCESTER,
 "3d September 1651,
 "(10 at night)

"SIR,

"Being so weary, and scarce able to write, yet I
 thought it my duty to let you know this much. That upon
 this day, being the 3d of September (remarkable for a mercy
 vouchsafed to your forces on this day twelvemonth in Scotland),



A DOLL'S HOUSE MADE IN 1673, WITH MINIATURE FURNITURE
(Reproduced by permission of the Director of the Victoria and Albert Museum)

we built a Bridge of Boats over Severn, between it and Teme, about half a mile from Worcester; and another over Teme, within pistol shot of our other Bridge. Lieutenant-General Fleetwood and Major-General Dean marched from Upton on the south-west side of Severn up to Powick, a Town which was a Pass the Enemy kept. We, from our side of Severn, passed over some horse and foot, and were in conjunction with the Lieutenant-General's Forces. We beat the Enemy from hedge to hedge till we beat him into Worcester.

"The Enemy then drew all his Forces on the other side the Town, all but what he had lost, and made a very considerable fight with us for three hours space, but in the end we beat him totally, and pursued him to his Royal Fort, which we took, —and indeed have beaten his whole Army. When we took his Fort, we turned his own guns upon him. The Enemy hath had great loss, and certainly is scattered, and run several ways. We are in pursuit of him, and have laid forces in several places that we hope will gather him up.

"Indeed this hath been a very glorious mercy,—and as stiff a contest, for four or five hours, as ever I have seen. Both your old Forces and those new-raised have behaved themselves with very great courage, and He that made them come out, made them willing to fight for you. The Lord God Almighty frame our hearts to real thankfulness for this, which is alone his doing. I hope I shall within a day or two give you a more perfect account.

"In the meantime I hope you will pardon, Sir,

"Your most humble servant,

"OLIVER CROMWELL" ¹

Exercises on the Source Reading

- 1 Write in your own words an account of the events described in this letter.
- 2 Draw a map to illustrate the battle of Worcester as described in this letter.
- 3 What was the "mercy vouchsafed to your forces on this day twelvemonth in Scotland"?
- 4 Which side was fighting on the offensive, and which on the defensive, in this battle? What were the defenders defending, and why?
- 5 Was this an easy or a hard-won victory? Give your reasons.
- 6 What can you judge from this letter about the character of Oliver Cromwell?

¹ From Carlyle's *Letters and Speeches of Cromwell*.

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7. What position did Cromwell hold at the time of this battle?
8. What do you know about (a) the events preceding this battle, (b) the results of the battle?
9. Find out as much as you can about William Lenthall and Lieutenant-General Fleetwood

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER III

Charts and Maps

Make Time Charts to illustrate

- 1 The Civil War, 1642-1649
- 2 The Commonwealth, 1649-1653
- 3 The life of Oliver Cromwell, 1599-1653 (finish this later).

Draw Graphs to illustrate

- 1 The fortunes of Parliament and king, 1640-1649
- 2 The popularity of the king, 1640-1649
- 3 The popularity of the Commonwealth, 1649-1653
- 4 Law and order in England and Scotland, 1640-1653
- 5 Law and order in Ireland, 1640-1650

Draw Maps or Plans to illustrate

- 1 England and Scotland during the wars of 1638-1651, shading differently the districts which supported the two sides in the Civil War
- 2 Ireland under the Commonwealth
- 3 The English Channel and North Sea, to illustrate the Dutch Wars.
- 4 The battles of Marston Moor, Naseby, Dunbar, Worcester (see the Source Reading, pp 284-6)

Questions

I

- 1 What do you know about the following Falkland, Edward Hyde, Levellers, Earl of Essex, Marston Moor, Naseby, Philiphaugh, battle of Dunbar, battle of Worcester, Montrose, Colonel Pride, Ireton, Blake, Van Tromp?
- 2 What is meant by the following Roundheads, Eastern Association, Solemn League and Covenant (distinguish this from the National Covenant), Ironsides, New Model Army, Independents, Rump, Navigation Act?
- 3 What different kinds of Royalists, and what different kinds of Parliamentarians, were there?
- 4 Which classes, and which districts of England, supported each side in the Civil War?
- 5 Write an account of the life of Oliver Cromwell, to 1653 (complete his life later)
6. For what reasons did Scotland support Parliament against the king?
- 7 Write an account of Cromwell's fighting against (a) the Irish, (b) the Scots
- 8 Write an account of the Dutch war, 1651-1654 What were its (a) causes, (b) results?

II

1 In the Civil War would you sooner have been a Cavalier or a Round head? Give your reasons

2 At the beginning of the Civil War, what were the advantages of each side?

3 Summarise the arguments for and against executing Charles I

4 Explain exactly what is meant by the "Commonwealth,"

5 Explain how and why Charles II was supported against the Commonwealth (*a*) in Ireland, (*b*) in Scotland

6 What were the chief difficulties with which the Commonwealth had to contend at home and abroad?

CHAPTER IV

OLIVER CROMWELL AND THE PROTECTORATE

OLIVER CROMWELL was fifty-four when he became Lord Protector in 1653: before he was sixty he died, worn out with the tremendous task of governing Britain after the disasters of the Civil War. He was a much more moderate man than most of the army leaders, and he cared far more for good government than for putting into practice the ideas of the fanatics who were so prominent at that time. He was well born—the descendant of country gentlemen and of a sister of that Cromwell who had been the chief minister of Henry VIII.¹ He had been educated at Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge—then a very Puritan College—and he was a keen Puritan himself, but not unwilling to tolerate other men's opinions, and he had had some practice in government, both as a Member of Parliament from 1628 onwards, and by looking after the affairs of the counties of Cambridge and Huntingdon during the eleven years when England had no Parliament.

CROMWELL'S FOREIGN POLICY—One of the first acts of Cromwell, after he had become used to his new position, was to make peace with the Dutch. This he did for two reasons. In the first place, he thought that Britain had need

¹ See p. 212.

of rest from fighting, instead of making war against a power as strong as herself. But in the second place, Cromwell hoped to build up a league of the Protestant states of Europe to fight against the Catholic states. The principal Protestant countries at that time were England, Holland, Sweden, and Denmark; and the two latter had already taken part in the Thirty Years War on the Protestant side—Sweden under her famous warrior king, *Gustavus Adolphus*. Nevertheless, none of these countries would agree to Cromwell's scheme. The Thirty Years War—the last great war of religion—had ended in 1648, and the states of Europe were by now less willing to fight for religion than for lands and trade. Consequently Cromwell's idea of a Protestant League in Europe fell through, and he had to turn elsewhere for an ally against Catholicism.

The chief Catholic power in Europe still appeared to be Spain, and it was Spain that Cromwell was most anxious to attack. Spain, however, was then at war with France, and it was therefore difficult to fight the former without allying with the latter, though France also was Catholic. In fact, both Spain and France tried to obtain the alliance of England, and *Mazarin* (who in 1642 had followed the great *Cardinal Richelieu* as chief minister of France) at last did so, in 1657.

WAR WITH SPAIN —In the meantime, however, Cromwell began to pursue the old policy of Elizabeth against the Spaniards. In 1654 he sent out to the West Indies two commanders, *Penn* and *Venables*, to capture the island of Hispaniola. In this they failed, but in 1655 they managed to take *Jamaica*, which eventually proved to be much more valuable. Blake, the old rival of Van Tromp, was still more successful, and in 1657 he destroyed a Spanish treasure fleet. Then came the alliance with France, and in the following year (1658) an English and French force defeated the Spaniards at the battle of the *Dunes*, in northern France. Peace was made between France and Spain in 1659, but by that time Cromwell was dead, and the only advantage which England had gained by this war (apart from Jamaica, which was not valued at first) was

that the exiled Charles II obtained no help from France in regaining his kingdom.

CROMWELL AND RELIGION—Thus Cromwell made Britain one of the most important powers in Europe, and



CROMWELL'S CHARIOT

A cartoon of 1649

Cromwell holds Liberty and the Church at the point of his sword, the three kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ireland are asleep, the chariot, drawn by dragons and driven by the Devil, is running over Charles I, whose head is cut off

(From a print in the British Museum)

it was said that his name was even more feared abroad than at home. At home his task was more difficult, since there were so many different parties, all of whom it was impossible to please. In religious matters Cromwell tried to suit as many as possible, and he granted toleration to almost

every one except Roman Catholics and Anglicans ; and even with these he interfered as little as he could, though he dared not grant them freedom of worship, for fear they should meet to plot against him. Even the Jews were encouraged to settle in England again for the first time since their expulsion by Edward I in 1290.

CROMWELL AND PARLIAMENT—Cromwell's chief difficulty was with Parliament, with which he agreed no better than Charles I had done. He had been made Protector by the army, and Parliament, jealous of his power, questioned his rights as they had questioned those of Charles. Cromwell, however, was better able to resist Parliament than the king had been, he was a stronger man, and he had at his back a powerful army, which Charles had never possessed. In fact, the rule of Cromwell was really a military despotism, though Cromwell himself was always trying to make his government more regular and less despotic. In times of great disorder, however, a despotism is often necessary, and the despotism of Cromwell gave Britain a better government than it could have obtained in any other way. Cromwell quarrelled with his Parliaments almost as soon as they met, and in 1655 he even began to rule, more than ever Charles I had done, by martial law, for in that year he divided the country into a number of districts, each of which he placed under the rule of a *Major-General*.

"KING CROMWELL."—Thus, by 1655, Cromwell was king in all but name, and as time went on more and more of his subjects wished him to become king in name as well. When Charles I was executed, in 1649, England had become really a "commonwealth" or republic, without one sole ruler. In 1653 it had been placed under a Protector, because a single ruler was found necessary to keep order. But even then England remained a republic in name, and Parliament was supposed to control the Protector. Moreover, there was no longer a House of Lords—only a House of Commons, which pretended to represent the people, though it did nothing of the sort. Within a year or two, as we have seen, this government was a failure, and Cromwell had been obliged to rule through the martial law of the

Major-Generals. In fact, the government of England in these years of Cromwell's protectorate depended on the power of the Protector alone, though Cromwell himself wished to rule in a "constitutional" way, and not as a despot. For this reason, in 1657 Parliament asked the Protector to become king, and presented to him a request (known as the *Humble Petition and Advice*) that in future he would rule with a Parliament consisting of two houses as before—a second House (called "the Other House") as well as a House of Commons, and that he would call a fresh Parliament at least once every three years. Cromwell refused the title of king, but the rest of the Petition was granted, and the Protector now seemed to be ruling in a more constitutional manner. Nevertheless, his death (on September 3rd, 1658—the anniversary of his two great victories over the Scots) showed that he was really a despot, for his son Richard, who became Protector for the next eight months, was too weak to follow in his father's footsteps, and Britain was soon looking out for another strong man to set her affairs in order.

GEORGE MONK AND THE RESTORATION—This strong man was found in the person of *George Monk*, who under Cromwell had been the governor of Scotland, and had given the Scots better rule than they had ever known before. He soon saw that Richard Cromwell was incompetent, and when Richard resigned the Protectorate (in May 1659) Monk gathered his Scottish troops and marched southwards. He reached London without striking a blow, and found Parliament quarrelling with the English army as to which of them should rule the kingdom. Monk cautiously decided against both; he dismissed the existing Parliament, summoned another one better representing the people, and persuaded this new Parliament to invite the son of Charles I to return and become king as Charles II. Charles was at this time at Breda, in Holland, and before coming to England he was compelled to sign promises (known as the *Declaration of Breda*) that all who had sided with Parliament against Charles I should be pardoned, and that there should be freedom of worship for all noncon-

formists who would worship quietly, without disturbing the peace. Charles gladly agreed to these conditions, and on his birthday (May 29th, 1660) he entered London as King of England and Scotland. Thus the eleven years of kingless rule in Britain ended with the *Restoration* (as it is always called) of the Stuarts to their two thrones

Books for further reading

GENERAL

Carlyle LETTERS AND SPEECHES OF CROMWELL

Hilaire Belloc OLIVER CROMWELL (*Benn*)

C H Firth CROMWELL (*Pulnam*)

D N Smith CHARACTERS FROM THE HISTORIES AND MEMOIRS OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY (*Oxford Univ Press*)

NOVELS

Marjorie Bowen GOVERNOR OF ENGLAND (*Methuen*)

S R Crockett HAL O' THE IRONSIDES (*Hodder and Stoughton*).

A Dumas TWENTY YEARS AFTER

J. H. Shorthose JOHN INGLESANT (*Macmillan*).

F. T. Bullen SEA PURITANS (*Hodder and Stoughton*)

SOURCE READING.

Parliament Petitions the Protector

"To his Highness the Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland and Ireland, and the dominions thereto belonging, the Humble Petition and Advice of the Knights, Citizens and Burgesses now assembled in the Parliament of the Commonwealth

"1. That your Highness will be pleased, by and under the name and style of Lord Protector . . . to govern according to this petition and advice in all things therein contained, and in all other things according to the laws of these nations, and not otherwise that your Highness will be pleased, during your lifetime, to appoint and declare the person who shall, immediately after your death, succeed you in the Government of these nations.

"2 That your Highness will for the future be pleased to call Parliaments consisting of two Houses, once in three years at furthest

"3. That the ancient and undoubted liberties and privileges of Parliament (which are the birthright and inheritance of the people, and wherein every man is interested) be preserved and

maintained ; and that you will not break or interrupt the same, nor suffer them to be broken or interrupted ; and particularly, that those persons who are legally chosen by a free election of the people to serve in Parliament, may not be excluded from sitting in Parliament to do their duties, but by judgment and consent of that House whereof they are members " ¹

Exercises on the Source Reading

- 1 What is the name by which this petition is usually known ? When and in what circumstances was it presented ?
2. Write notes on Knights, citizens, burgesses. What classes usually mentioned in lists of members of Parliament are omitted from this list, and why ?
- 3 In what way is section 1 different from what the petitioners had wished ?
4. State exactly what changes were made by section 2, and why.
5. Express clearly in your own words the meaning of section 3
6. Why does the preamble call this a "Petition and Advice," and not merely a "petition" ?
- 7 What can you learn from this reading about (a) the relations of Cromwell with his Parliaments, (b) his methods of government generally ?
8. "The liberties, franchises, privileges and jurisdiction of Parliament are the ancient and undoubted right and inheritance of the subjects of England" This quotation is not from the above reading, but from something else which you have read recently Where is it from ? What do you deduce from its close likeness to section 3 of this reading ?
- 9 Make a list of "the dominions thereto belonging" (lines 2-3) at this time

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER IV

Charts

Make Time Charts to illustrate

- 1 The life of Oliver Cromwell from 1653 to his death (completed from Chapter III)
- 2 The Protectorate, 1653-1660 (give separate columns to (a) domestic affairs, (b) foreign affairs)

Make Graphs to illustrate

- 1 The power of Parliament, 1649-1660
2. The liberty of the people, 1600-1660
- 3 The popularity of Cromwell, 1650-1658
- 4 Law and order in England and Scotland and Ireland, 1650-1660,

Questions

I

- 1 What do you know about the following Gustavus Adolphus, Richelieu, Mazarin, Penn and Venables, Monk, battle of the Dunes ?
- 2 What is meant by Major-Generals, Humble Petition and Advice, "constitutional" rule, Declaration of Breda, the Restoration ?

¹ From Gardiner's *Constitutional Documents of the Puritan Revolution*.

3. Write an account of the life of Oliver Cromwell from 1653-1658
4. Write an account of Cromwell's relations with Parliament
5. Write an account of Cromwell's dealings with foreign nations.
6. Make a list of events in Cromwell's life which occurred on the 3rd of September
7. How, when, and why was the Stuart line of kings restored?

II

1. Explain carefully the difficulties confronting Cromwell in foreign affairs, and the reasons which influenced his foreign policy
2. In what ways do you think Cromwell was (a) behind the times, (b) ahead of his contemporaries?
3. In what ways do you consider the rule of Cromwell was (a) like, (b) unlike, that of Charles I?
4. Do you think Cromwell ought to have taken the title of "king"? Give your reasons
5. How and why did Cromwell fail to be a "constitutional" ruler?
6. "The same arts that did gain
A power, must it maintain"

This was written by the poet Marvell during Cromwell's lifetime. What does it mean, and how far do you agree with it as applied to Cromwell?

CHAPTER V

CHARLES II AND LOUIS XIV

BRITAIN AFTER THE RESTORATION—Charles II, when he became king of Britain at the Stuart Restoration in 1660, had been in exile for nearly twenty years, and he was so pleased to be safely on his throne that he vowed that he would never "go on his travels again." Consequently, he determined not to quarrel with Parliament as his father and grandfather had done, and as he was more tactful than either of them, and too fond of pleasure to worry himself unduly about other things, there was no great likelihood of another civil war in his time. Besides, the first Parliament elected in his reign was so loyal, and so firmly resolved not to go to war with a king again, that it became known as the *Cavalier Parliament*. It lasted from 1661 till 1678—longer even than the famous Long Parliament.

EDWARD HYDE, EARL OF CLARENDON.—For the first seven years of his reign, Charles's Chancellor, or chief minister, was Edward Hyde, who was now made *Earl of Clarendon*. He was one of those moderate Parliamentarians who had opposed the king at the beginning of the Long Parliament, but who had fought for him during the Civil War,¹ and he had accompanied Charles II during his "travels" on the Continent. He was, in fact, too moderate for the Royalist members of the Cavalier Parliament, who would have liked him to be far more severe towards the former opponents of the Stuarts. Nevertheless, Clarendon joined with them in passing against the opponents of the Church of England a set of laws which became known as *The Clarendon Code*, though Clarendon himself was not wholly in their favour.

THE CLARENDON CODE.—The Clarendon Code consisted of four laws, which together made things very uncomfortable for the Nonconformists. The *Corporation Act* (1661) compelled all members of town corporations to be communicant members of the Church of England, and as most borough members of Parliament were elected by the corporations, it ensured that the Nonconformists should have hardly any representatives in Parliament. In the next year the *Act of Uniformity* made it compulsory for all clergymen to use the Church prayer book, which was revised for the purpose in that year, and about two thousand clergymen in England were turned out of their livings for not doing so. These clergymen, however, being thus deprived of their churches, went on holding meetings in the open air and in private houses, until this too was stopped by the other two acts of the Clarendon Code—the *Conventicle Act*² (1664), which forbade private services for worship, except according to the prayer book; and the *Five Mile Act* (1665), which made it illegal for Nonconformists to preach or teach within five miles of an important town. Similar acts were passed in the Scottish Parliament; the Scots were forced to accept a number of

¹ See pp 277-8

² *Conventicle*, literally "a little meeting."

bishops, including an Archbishop of Saint Andrews (Sharp), who speedily made himself very unpopular, and nearly three hundred Scottish clergymen lost their livings for refusing to accept the changes. Indeed, the Presbyterians of Scotland were so hardly treated that in 1679 Sharp was murdered in revenge, and this was the signal for a revolt of the *Covenanters*.¹ They first defeated Claverhouse (later called Viscount Dundee) at *Drumclog*, but were finally beaten at *Bothwell Bridge* (1679). For the next few years persecution in Scotland was so severe (under the king's brother, the Duke of York), that this period became known as "the killing time."

THE FIRST DUTCH WAR OF THE RESTORATION.—The period of Clarendon's rule as chief minister (1660-1667) was also marked by another war against Holland, though this, too, was much against Clarendon's wishes. The Navigation Act of 1651 was renewed in 1661, and it annoyed the Dutch as much as before. The principal Dutch admirals were Van Tromp and De Ruyter, and the chief English admiral was Monk, who now proved him-



THE BEGINNINGS OF NEW YORK.

"New Amsterdam" from a Dutch print made before its capture by the English in 1664.
(From a print in the British Museum.)

¹ That is, supporters of the "National Covenant" of 1638 (see pp. 272 and 275-6).

self as skilful at sea as he had formerly been on land. Fighting was fairly even, though in 1664 New Amsterdam was captured from the Dutch and renamed *New York* in honour of the Duke of York, the king's brother, who was Lord High Admiral at the time. This conquest, as we shall see (p. 332), proved extremely important for the growth of The British Empire. Three years later the Dutch had their revenge, when their fleet sailed up the Thames and burned the English ships lying at anchor at Chatham. In the same year (1667), however, a peace was made at *Breda*, by which the English relaxed the Navigation Act but kept New York.

LOUIS XIV AND THE DUTCH—This year (1667) also saw the fall of Clarendon. He had offended the pleasure-loving king by his sternness, the Cavalier Parliament by his moderation, and the Nonconformists by the Clarendon Code, and the whole nation blamed him for the Dutch victory at Chatham. For the next six years Charles was advised chiefly by five ministers who became known as the *Cabal*—partly because their initials formed the word,¹ and partly because it meant, in Hebrew, a secret council. It was not long in justifying its name, by concluding a secret treaty with *Louis XIV*, the king of France. Louis XIV is always known as “le grand monarque” (“the great monarch”), and he was scheming to make France the mistress of Europe. For this purpose he sought the alliance of England, though the Protestant English were opposed to his Catholic plans; and this was why the treaty had to be a secret one. It was signed at *Dover*, in 1670, and provided that England was to help France to conquer the Dutch, and that in return Louis should assist Charles in making England Roman Catholic whenever he thought the time suitable. In 1672 England and France declared war against the Dutch, but the government was already so poor that in January 1672 it had refused to pay back the money it had borrowed, and this *stop of the Exchequer* (as it was called) helped to show up the folly of spending yet more money on behalf of the French king. Peace was therefore soon made, in 1674, though the French went

¹ Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley, Lauderdale

on fighting for four more years, without any very great success.

THE FIRST EARL OF SHAFTESBURY.—Before this the Cabal had broken up, principally because the cleverest of its members (Ashley) found that the king had deceived him about the Treaty of Dover. Ashley (who was made Earl of Shaftesbury) knew about the alliance with France, but not about the scheme to make England Roman Catholic, and as he was himself bitterly opposed to the Catholics, he became henceforth the enemy of the king. In 1672 Charles attempted to benefit the Catholics (and the other Nonconformists along with them) by issuing a *Declaration of Indulgence* granting freedom of worship for the time being. To counteract this Shaftesbury persuaded Parliament to pass, in the next year, the *Test Act*, which made it illegal for any one to hold office in the state unless he was a full member of the Church of England. Among those who had to give up their offices through this Act was the king's brother, James, Duke of York, who, like Charles himself at heart, was a Roman Catholic, and from this time Shaftesbury made it his aim to prevent the duke from becoming king when his brother died.

WHIGS AND TORIES.—Shaftesbury was an unscrupulous man, and he was not above using dishonest means to obtain his ends. In 1678 he encouraged a number of rogues (chief of whom was a disgraced clergyman, *Titus Oates*) to spread about false rumours of a supposed plot among the Catholics to murder Charles, put his brother James, Duke of York, on the throne, and make England Roman Catholic with the aid of Louis XIV. Shaftesbury knew these stories of the *Popish Plot* to be untrue, but he used them to further his aim of keeping James from the throne. Next he introduced an *Exclusion Bill* to prevent James from becoming king on the death of his brother, but the Bill failed to pass through the House of Lords, and Charles dismissed Parliament to prevent it from discussing the question again. Shaftesbury and his followers therefore signed numerous petitions to the king to summon Parliament, and these "petitioners" (or *Whigs*, as they were

nicknamed by their opponents) soon formed a powerful party against the Royalists, who were nicknamed *Tories*, in their turn. In this way began the two great English parties, the Whigs and the Tories, who controlled politics for nearly two centuries after this.

THE HABEAS CORPUS ACT.—Meantime Charles had been imprisoning his opponents (much as his father Charles I had done) without bringing them quickly to trial. Consequently, in 1679, Shaftesbury secured the passing of the *Habeas Corpus Act*,¹ which made it illegal for prisoners to be detained for long without a trial. Although this was little more than a repetition of one clause of the Petition of Right, it has proved much more successful, and for over two centuries and a half has been one of the chief safeguards of our liberties.

THE OXFORD PARLIAMENT AND THE FALL OF SHAFTESBURY.—Meantime Shaftesbury had become so popular and so powerful in London and the neighbourhood that Charles called his next Parliament at Oxford, which was stoutly royalist. Fearing a plot to imprison them, the Whigs came to this Parliament carrying arms with which to defend themselves if necessary, and this proved to be their undoing. The majority of Englishmen were determined to avoid another civil war at all costs, and the country turned against Shaftesbury and his Whigs when they seemed to be threatening violence in this way. From that moment Shaftesbury began to lose ground; in 1682 he fled to Holland to avoid the king's revenge; and in the next year he died.

THE DEATH OF CHARLES II.—By this time the people realised that his story of the Popish Plot was worthless, and as Charles took care not to annoy his subjects any further, the king became increasingly popular until his death in 1685. If he had been followed on the throne by some one as tactful as himself, the history of Britain in the next few years would have been very different. But his brother James, who now became James II, was as unwise as his father and grandfather, and within four years

¹ *Habeas Corpus* is a legal term, meaning literally, "Have (or produce) the body" of the prisoner.

he had brought the country once more to the verge of civil war.

Books for further reading :

GENERAL

Macaulay · HISTORY OF ENGLAND, Chapter II.

Macaulay · ESSAY ON SIR WILLIAM TEMPLE.

T. Stone · ENGLAND UNDER THE RESTORATION (*Longmans*).

J. H. Tanner · MR PEPYS (*Bell*)

NOVELS

Sir Walter Scott · PEVERIL OF THE PEAK.

Marjorie Bowen · I WILL MAINTAIN (*Methuen*).

Marjorie Bowen · DEFENDER OF THE FAITH (*Methuen*).

Stanley Weyman · SHREWSBURY (*Longmans*).

S. R. Crockett · MEN OF THE MOSS-HAGS (*Pitman*).

S. R. Crockett · CHERRY RIBAND (*Hodder and Stoughton*).

SOURCE READING

A Fallen Minister

(From the Diary of John Evelyn. Evelyn was one of the most famous English diarists in the seventeenth century.)

"25th July, 1673 · I went to Tunbridge Wells, to visit my Lord Clifford, late Lord Treasurer, who was there to divert his mind more than his body ; it was believed that he had so engaged himself to the Duke, that, rather than take the Test, without which he was not capable of holding any office, he would resign that great and honourable station. This, I am confident, grieved him to the heart, and at last broke it ; for, though he carried with him music and people to divert him, and, when I came to see him, lodged me in his own apartment, and would not let me go from him, I found he was struggling in his mind ; and, being of a rough and ambitious nature, he could not long brook the necessity he had brought on himself, of submission to this conjuncture. Besides, he saw the Dutch War, which was made much by his advice, as well as the shutting up of the Exchequer, very unprosperous. These things his high spirit could not support. Having staid here two or three days, I obtained leave of my Lord to return."

Exercises on the Source Reading

1. When this extract was written the king and his government were passing through anxious times. Give as many reasons as you can for their anxiety at this time.

2 What do you know about Clifford? To what set of advisers of Charles II had he belonged? Who were the other members, and what do you know about them?

3 Who was "the Duke"? What do you know about him?

4 What do you deduce about Clifford's opinions from the fact that "he had so engaged himself to the Duke"?

5 Explain fully what is meant by "the Test, without which he was not capable of holding any office."

6 To which Dutch war is it that reference is made? What do you know about it?

7. What do you know about "the shutting up of the Exchequer"? What is the Exchequer?

8 What can you learn or guess from this extract about the character and opinions of (a) Clifford, (b) Evelyn?

9 What references can you find in this extract to pastimes and amusements in the seventeenth century?

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER V

Charts and Maps

Make Time Charts to illustrate

1 The reign of Charles II, 1660-1685

2 The reign of Louis XIV of France, (i) 1643-1685 (complete later)

Draw Graphs to illustrate

1 The popularity of Charles II, 1660-1685

2 The control of the king over Parliament, 1660-1688 (complete later)

3 The power and popularity of Shaftesbury, 1660-1685

4 The influence of Louis XIV over Charles II, 1660-1685.

Draw Maps of

1 The possessions of Louis XIV in (a) 1643, (b) 1715

2 British possessions in America in (a) 1660, (b) 1685.

Questions

I

1 What do you know of the following Clarendon Code, Corporation Act, Archbishop Sharp, De Ruyter, James Duke of York, Navigation Acts, Monk, Declaration of Breda, Peace of Breda, Treaty of Dover, Test Act, Titus Oates, Exclusion Bill, Habeas Corpus Act, Oxford Parliament, Drumclog, Bothwell Bridge, Viscount Dundee?

2 What is meant by the following Cavalier Parliament, Conventicle, Cabal, stop of the Exchequer, Declaration of Indulgence, Whigs, Tories?

3 Write an account of the life of Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon.

4 Write an account of the life of the first Earl of Shaftesbury

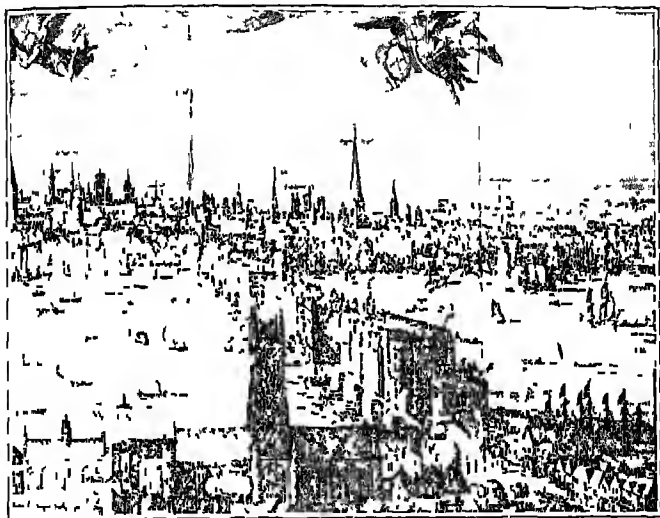
5 Write an account of the Dutch Wars during the reign of Charles II.

6 What do you know about the "Popish Plot"? Why was it important?

7 By what means did Charles II manage not to "go on his travels again"?

II

- 1 Show the chief points of difference between Clarendon and Shaftesbury
2. What additions were made to the British Empire during the reign of Charles II? What was the reason for each addition, and why was each important?
- 3 What new parties came into prominence in Parliament in this reign, and why? What were the principles of each party?



LONDON BRIDGE IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

Notice the buildings on the bridge in the front of the picture is the Church of St Mary Overy, now Southwark Cathedral, the City of London is across the river

(From a print in the British Museum)

- 4 Would you agree that the Habeas Corpus Act is one of the most important of English laws? Give reasons for your answer. Of what other English laws does it remind you?
- 5 Charles II has been called "the wisest of the Stuarts" How far do you agree with this?
6. Why was the reign of Louis XIV of France important in the history of Europe?

CHAPTER VI

JAMES II AND THE REVOLUTION

MONMOUTH, ARGYLE, AND THE BLOODY ASSIZE.—James, Duke of York, who became in 1685 James II of England and James VII of Scotland, was the first admittedly Roman Catholic king since the time of Philip II and Mary, nearly a century and a half before Charles II had been a Catholic, but had hidden the fact until he was dying. James was openly a Catholic, and although the Test Act had prevented him from remaining a Catholic Admiral, he was now allowed to be a Catholic king. From the beginning of his reign, however, he made mistakes. In 1685 he had to deal with two rebellions—one, in the west, led by the *Duke of Monmouth* (James's nephew), who claimed to be the rightful king; and one in Scotland, led by the Presbyterian *Duke of Argyle*. Both revolts were defeated and both leaders executed. This was just, but the unjust trial and punishment of many of Monmouth's followers by Judge Jeffreys (in the "Bloody Assize") laid up a store of hatred for Jeffreys' master, the king.

DISPENSING POWER AND SUSPENDING POWER.—Next year James began to misuse his royal rights, much as his father Charles I had done before him—especially two rights known as the *Dispensing Power* and the *Suspending Power*. By the former, the king is able to exempt from punishment people who have broken the law.¹ But James, instead of using this power only occasionally and cautiously, began to exempt from punishment many of those Roman Catholics who had violated the Test Act. Many Catholics were appointed to be army officers, others were given important posts at the Universities. The former seemed to threaten the Protestants with a military despotism; the latter would spread Roman Catholicism at Oxford and Cambridge. Consequently there was a great protest against the king's wholesale use of the Dispensing Power in this way.

¹ As is still done, for example, when a condemned criminal is granted a "reprieve."

The Suspending Power was similar, except that it enabled the king to cancel a law altogether for the time being, instead of merely pardoning individuals who had broken it. In 1687 James in this way suspended many of the laws against Nonconformists, and by a special *Declaration of Indulgence* granted them permission to worship freely in their own manner. This Declaration of Indulgence applied to Protestant Nonconformists as well as to Catholics, but the former mostly refused to benefit by it, since they realised that the king was merely preparing to make the country wholly Catholic.

This Declaration roused opposition enough against James; but in the following year he made matters worse by issuing it again, and this time ordering it to be read publicly in all the churches. For most clergymen, to do this was impossible, partly because they regarded it as wicked to grant free worship to every one, and partly because they believed the Suspending Power to be illegal. They therefore felt it to be their duty to resist the king in this matter, and they were given a lead by seven of the bishops, under *William Sancroft*, Archbishop of Canterbury. The seven bishops petitioned the king to excuse them from reading the Declaration, not because they were disloyal, nor because they wished ill to the Nonconformists, but because the king, in issuing the Declaration, had himself broken the law. Thus the people regarded the bishops as champions of the liberties of the whole country; and when, after being arrested by the king for petitioning him, they were declared not guilty, there was widespread rejoicing, and James found himself far more unpopular than ever.

THE REVOLUTION OF 1688-1689.—In this same year (1688) something happened which increased still further the king's unpopularity. This was the birth of his son, who was later to be known as the "Pretender,"¹ when he "claimed" the throne after his father's death. Hitherto James had had no son—only two daughters, Mary and Anne, who had been brought up as Protestants. *Couse-*

¹ French, *prétendre*, to claim.

quently, the people were prepared to wait for James's death, when one of his Protestant daughters would succeed him. Now, however, he had a son who would be a Roman Catholic, and England and Scotland were threatened with a long line of Catholic monarchs. The leading statesmen of both parties therefore prepared to dethrone James, and they invited Princess Mary and her husband, *William of Orange*, the ruler of Holland, to come to England and take the throne. In November 1688 William landed and raised an army; in December James fled to France without any attempt to fight, early in 1689, William and Mary were declared to be king and queen jointly, and thus without a single battle was completed England's *Bloodless Revolution*.

THE REVOLUTION IN SCOTLAND AND IN IRELAND—In Scotland and Ireland, however, the Revolution was not bloodless. During the summer of 1689 a Scots army, under *Viscount Dundee*, tried to win back for James his Scottish throne. Dundee's army beat the English at *Killiecrankie*, but Dundee himself was killed, and his leaderless army soon disbanded, and William III was accepted as King of Scotland. In Ireland the *Jacobite*¹ resistance lasted longer. James himself invaded Ireland, and called a Parliament at Dublin. His army besieged the chief Protestant strongholds—especially Londonderry, where the siege lasted over three months, and was ended after a very heroic defence. But in 1690 William himself took command of the Protestant forces in Ireland, and in the *Battle of the Boyne* (July 1690) so thoroughly defeated the Jacobite troops that James fled to France again—and this time he never returned. By the end of 1691 even Ireland was pacified, by the *Treaty of Limerick*, which promised to the Roman Catholics of Ireland their ancient liberties. This treaty, however, was so badly kept by the English that the Irish were further embittered, and Limerick gained the name of "the city of the broken treaty."

THE BILL OF RIGHTS—Before he was made king William III had had to sign a *Declaration of Rights* in which

¹ From *Jacobus*, the Latin for "James."

he promised to respect the liberties of his subjects; and he was willing to do this because the Dutch were engaged in a war with Louis XIV of France, and William was much more anxious to have the use of the English army in this war, than to trouble about making himself a strong king in England. After his proclamation as king, the Declaration was turned into a law as the *Bill of Rights*, while the Scottish Parliament passed a similar law called the *Claim of Right*. The Bill of Rights finally settled the struggle between king and Parliament which had lasted all through the seventeenth century, and it settled it in favour of Parliament. It declared that the Suspending Power (by which James II and Charles II had issued their Declarations of Indulgence) was wholly illegal, and that the Dispensing Power (though it could not be abolished altogether) was illegal "as it hath been assumed and exercised of late." Next it decided two more old quarrels—that about taxation, by enacting that no money whatever might be levied by the king without the consent of Parliament; and that about martial law, by making it illegal for the king to keep a standing army except in war time. Finally, the Bill of Rights fixed the succession to the throne. After William and Mary, their children were to succeed; if they had no children (and, in fact, they never had), Mary's sister Anne should become queen, to be followed by her children. No Roman Catholic might ever become king, and thus the Roman Catholic Stuarts were permanently excluded from the throne, though for many years their followers, the Jacobites, hoped that the old line of kings would return.

CONSTITUTIONAL KINGSHIP.—Though it was "bloodless," this Revolution was one of the most important events in English history. Since 1689 Parliament has been more powerful than the king, and no king has ever succeeded in ruling without its consent. Yet the British (unlike the French when they had their revolution a century later) did not this time do away with their king. Instead, the king has remained, in theory, at the head of affairs, and all the government is carried on in his name. Nevertheless it is Parliament which does most to decide how the government

shall be conducted, and when the king and Parliament disagree, it is the king who is expected to give way. Thus at the Revolution Great Britain became a *limited* or *constitutional* monarchy—a monarchy, that is, in which the powers of the king are carefully “limited” by the “constitution,” or form of government. By an accident the royal power was even further limited by an Act passed in 1689—the *Mutiny Act*. It was passed in order to provide William with an army for the time being, in order to fight the French, and it was passed for only one year, so that it had to be repeated year by year as long as war lasted. As a matter of fact, the war lasted, with hardly a break, well into the eighteenth century, and the Mutiny Act was passed afresh every year, until it became customary that this should be so. But in order to get it passed and so obtain the army required, the monarch had to call Parliament every year. Thus since 1689 there has been no year without a meeting of Parliament, and so, in this accidental way, it became impossible for a king to do without Parliament for years at a time, as Charles I had done.

THE REVOLUTION AND RELIGION IN ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.—The Revolution of 1688–1689 also made a settlement of the religious quarrels which had disturbed the land since the sixteenth century. As we have seen, no Roman Catholic might in future be king of England; but in all other respects the statesmen who conducted the Revolution showed great leniency. In England the Anglican Church felt safe now that it had rid itself of the Catholic on the throne, and therefore a *Toleration Act* was passed in 1689, allowing freedom of worship to all who would swear allegiance to William and Mary and declare them to be Supreme Heads of the Church in England. This was satisfactory to the great majority of Englishmen, and even those who felt themselves unable to take the oath¹ were not molested, so long as they were not disloyal to the new royal line. In Scotland, too, a final settlement was made of the religious question. The bishops who had

¹ They included the Roman Catholics and a number of Anglicans, who became known as *Non-jurors* (Latin *jurare*, to “swear”)

been appointed in the reign of Charles II were dismissed, and the state church became definitely Presbyterian, as it still is.

Books for further reading

GENERAL

Macaulay SELECTIONS FROM THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND (*Longmans*).
E M. Wilmot-Buxton THE STRUGGLE WITH THE CROWN (*Harrap*).

NOVELS

Sir Walter Scott, OLD MORTALITY.
John Masefield MARTIN HYDE (*Wells Gardner*)
Conan Doyle MICAH CLARKE (*Longmans*)
Marjorie Bowen GOD AND THE KING (*Methuen*)
Stanley Weyman SHREWSBURY (*Longmans*)
C M Yonge A REPUTED CHANGELING (*Macmillan*)

SOURCE READING.

The Crime of the Seven Bishops

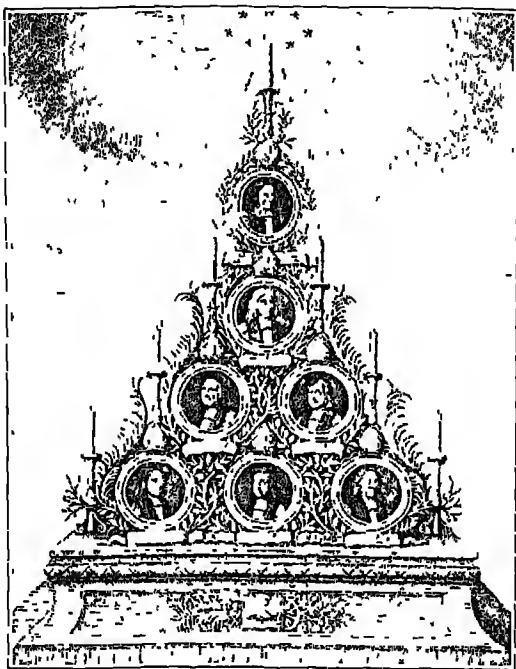
"To the King's most excellent Majesty:—

"The Humble Petition of William Archbishop of Canterbury and of divers of the Suffragan Bishops of the Provinces, now present with him, in behalf of themselves and others of their absent brethren, and of the Clergy of their Respective Dioceses,

Humbly sheweth

"That their great Averseness they find in themselves to the Distribution and Publication in all their churches of your Majesty's late Declaration for Liberty of Conscience, proceedeth neither from any want of Duty and Obedience to your Majesty, our Holy Mother the Church of England being both in her Principles and Constant Practices unquestionably loyal, and having, to her great honour, been more than once publicly acknowledged to be so, by your Majesty, nor yet from any want of due tenderness to Dissenters, in relation to whom they are willing to come to such a Temper as shall be thought fitt, when the matter shall be considered and settled in Parliament and Convocation. But among many other considerations, from this especially, because the Declaration is founded upon such a Dispensing Power as has been often declared illegal in Parliament, and particularly in the years 1662, 1672, and in the beginning of your Majesty's Reign, and is a matter of so great

Moment and Consequence to the whole Nation, both in Church and State, that your Petitioners cannot in Prudence, Honour and Conscience so far make themselves Parties to it, as the Distribution of it all over your Nation, and reading of it even in God's House, and in the time of His Divine Service, must



THE SEVEN BISHOPS.

A print of 1688, showing the Seven Bishops, and the "seven candles" and the "seven stars" mentioned in the Book of Revelation, Chapter 1, verse 20

(From a print in the British Museum)

amount to in Common and Reasonable Construction. Your Petitioners therefore most humbly and earnestly beseech your Majesty that you will be graciously pleased not to insist upon the Distribution and Reading Your Majesty's Declaration,"¹

¹ From a contemporary copy in the Cathedral Library, St. Asaph by permission of the Dean and Chapter.

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Exercises on the Source Reading

1. What is the above passage? By whom was it signed? Relate the story of the events which led up to its being written. What were its consequences?
2. What is the "late Declaration" referred to in this passage?
3. Point out those parts of this petition which show that the bishops are trying not to offend the king.
4. In what ways had the Church of England in the seventeenth century shown itself to be "unquestionably loyal"? Why was it the special duty of that Church to be loyal?
5. Did the bishops object to "liberty of conscience"? If so, say why. If not, say what it was, exactly, to which they did object.
6. Why did the bishops regard the question of the Dispensing Power as "a matter of so great moment and consequence to the whole nation"?
7. Were the bishops right in saying that "the Declaration is founded upon" the Dispensing Power?
8. "In common and reasonable construction" what do these words show about (a) the attitude of the bishops, (b) the Declaration itself?
9. What can we learn from the first paragraph about the attitude of (a) the seven bishops themselves, (b) the rest of the bishops and clergy?
10. Write notes on William, Archbishop of Canterbury, Dissenters, Convocation, Dispensing Power.

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER VI

Charts

Make Time Charts to show

1. Events leading to the Revolution of 1688-9
2. The Revolution of 1688-9 in (a) England, (b) Scotland, (c) Ireland (to 1692)

Draw Graphs to show:

1. The decline of the popularity of James II, 1685-1688.
2. The control of the king over Parliament, 1685-8 (completed from last chapter).

Draw a Map of the British Isles to illustrate the events of the Revolution.

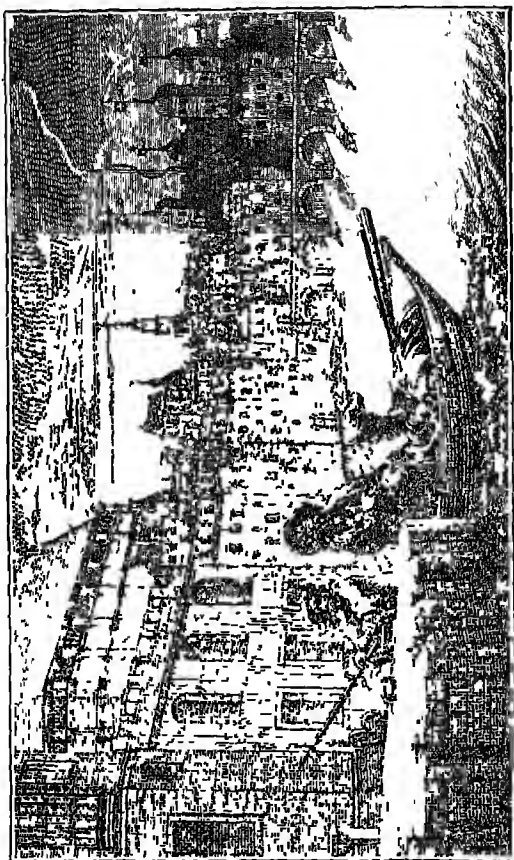
Questions

I

1. What do you know about the following: Test Act, Duke of Monmouth, Duke of Argyle, Judge Jeffreys, Sancroft, Viscount Dundee, battle of Killiecrankie, battle of the Boyne, Treaty of Limerick, Mutiny Act, Toleration Act?
2. What is meant by the following: Bloody Assize, Declaration of Indulgence, Jacobite, "the city of the broken treaty," Declaration of Rights, Claim of Right, constitutional kingship, limited monarchy, non-jurors?
3. In what ways did James II annoy his subjects (a) at the beginning, (b) at the end, of his reign?

4 Why did the seven bishops petition the king? Why was their petition important?

5. How far is it true to call the Revolution "bloodless"?



JAMES II'S ESCAPE FROM LONDON.
(From a seventeenth-century print in the British Museum)

6 Write an account of the military events of the Revolution in (a) England, (b) Scotland, (c) Ireland

7. Make a list of the terms of the Bill of Rights

8. What settlement was made by the Revolution in religious matters (a) in England, (b) in Scotland, (c) in Ireland?

II

1. Explain carefully the difference between the "Dispensing Power" and the "Suspending Power." In what ways did James II make use of each?
2. Discuss whether James II was deposed fairly
3. Why is the Bill of Rights regarded as one of the most important Acts in British history?
4. Explain how it came about that Parliament was summoned annually after the Revolution
5. What changes in the government of Britain were brought about by the Revolution of 1688-9? How far do you think it is correct to call it a revolution?

CHAPTER VII

BRITAIN AFTER THE REVOLUTION

CABINET GOVERNMENT AND THE PARTY SYSTEM—The Revolution made Britain a constitutional monarchy, but it took some time for the new constitution to get into working order. For one thing, though the king was now to rule as Parliament directed, it soon appeared that Parliament was too big and unwieldy to direct him. Before long, therefore, it became customary for the king to choose an inner circle of advisers from among the most prominent people in Parliament. At first this inner circle was chosen from both parties, Whigs and Tories alike; but as they tended to give different advice, William III in 1696 appointed his advisers, for the first time, from one party only; and he chose all Whigs and no Tories because the Whigs were more willing than the Tories to help him in his war with France. This group of advisers from one party was so unpopular that it was nicknamed the *Junta*—a Spanish word which (like "Cabal" under Charles II) meant a secret and rather underhand council.

As time went on, however, the country became accustomed to a one-party group of advisers, which gradually came to be called the *Cabinet*. In 1708 there was a Cabinet of Whigs only, keen on continuing the war; two years later there was a Cabinet of Tories only, keen on making peace;

and since that time the Government has nearly been chosen from statesmen of one party—which most votes, for the time being, in the House of Commons. This method of choosing the Government is known as the *Party System*.

THE NATIONAL DEBT AND THE BANK OF ENGLAND. William allowed his power to be limited in this way because he was less interested in ruling Britain than in winning the war with Louis XIV. The same desire for victory made him agree to a change in the management of the affairs of the country. This was the establishment in 1693, of the *National Debt*. Money was needed for the war and it was necessary to borrow. Now, for the first time, the money was not obtained from private bankers and moneylenders, as hitherto, because the lenders always demanded their money back at inconvenient times. Instead, the Government borrowed money from the public, who would lend it permanently, without asking for it again, on condition that they regularly received interest for it. The money thus borrowed was placed in the *Consolidated Fund*, and shares in the fund were known as *Consols*. In the following year (1694) the *Bank of England* was founded to control this National Debt. The shareholders of the Bank were the subscribers to the Consolidated Fund, and the Bank, as chief creditor of the State, was in a specially privileged position, which it still retains.

THE ACT OF SETTLEMENT.—Queen Mary died in 1702, and William III in 1702. They had no children, and therefore, in the year before William's death, the *Act of Settlement* was passed to fix the succession. Mary's sisters and her children were to follow William, and if they had no descendants the throne was to go to Sophia of Hanover (a grand-daughter of James II) and her heirs.¹ In addition, the Act of Settlement made special provision for the religion of the king or queen. Under the Bill of Rights the monarch had to be Protestant. Under the Act of Settlement he had to be a member of the Church of England—that is, he might not be even a



Nonconformist. In order to limit the king's power still further, the Act declared that in future he might not dismiss the judges at his will (as some of the Stuart kings had done), but that Parliament alone should have the power to dismiss them, and even then only if they really deserved dismissal.

SCOTLAND AFTER THE REVOLUTION —After the Revolution England and Scotland continued to be separate kingdoms (though under the same king), as they were before it. Most of the Highlanders were Jacobites, but most of them took the oath of allegiance to William III. One clan, however, the Macdonalds, did so as late as it dared—in fact, after the appointed day. William therefore suspected them of disloyalty, and instead of punishing them himself he allowed their old enemies, the Campbells, to do so, and in an exceedingly treacherous manner. In 1692 a party of Campbells paid an apparently friendly visit to the Macdonalds at their home in Glencoe; but one night, under cover of darkness, they murdered nearly every man in the clan. How far William III himself was to blame for this villainy we do not know, but the *Massacre of Glencoe* did much to make northern Scotland hostile to him.

THE DARIEN SCHEME —Soon afterwards the southern Scots, too, were offended, in a different way. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries one English trading company after another had been founded, and had become prosperous; and the Scots wished to share in this prosperity. In 1695, therefore, they founded the *Darien Company*, to trade with the Isthmus of Darien, or Panama. The company was not very well managed, and it was much hindered by the Spaniards in America, but it was also opposed by English and Dutch merchants who feared its rivalry, and for this opposition the Scots (rightly or wrongly) blamed William III. In 1699 the Darien Scheme had to be abandoned, and the ill-feeling which already existed between the Scots and the English was therefore increased.

THE SCOTTISH UNION —Thus, by the beginning of the eighteenth century, it seemed time that England and Scotland ought either to separate altogether or to unite

more closely. Most of the English desired union—especially because England was at war, and it would be dangerous to have Scotland among her enemies. Many of the Scots, however, annoyed at their treatment by the English, desired separation, and in 1703 the Scottish Parliament threatened to bring this about by passing the *Act of Security*. By this Act the Scots were to choose, on the death of Queen Anne, a different monarch from the English, unless in the meantime they were given better treatment in trade and religion. The English Government immediately tried to conciliate the Scots, and were so successful that in 1707 both countries agreed to the *Act of Union*. The most important of the terms of this Act was the union of the two Parliaments of England and Scotland. The Parliament at Edinburgh ceased to meet, and instead the Scots received forty-five representatives in the new, British, House of Commons, and sixteen in the House of Lords. In addition, the English agreed to grant free trade to the Scots, and so cease treating them as foreigners in commercial matters. A sum of £400,000 was contributed by the English towards the Scottish National Debt, and the special Scots law and the Presbyterian Church of Scotland were to remain unchanged. For some time after 1707 many of the Scots continued to be unfriendly to England, and there were one or two rebellions. But by the middle of the eighteenth century Scotland realised that it had gained far more than it had lost by the Union, which therefore proved, in the long run, a complete success.

Books for further reading :

GENERAL

Macaulay SELECTIONS FROM THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND (*Longmans*).
E. M. Wilmot-Buxton THE STRUGGLE WITH THE CROWN (*Harrap*).

NOVELS

Marjorie Bowen GOD AND THE KING (*Methuen*).
Stanley Weyman SHREWSBURY (*Longmans*).
C. M. Yonge. A REPUTED CHANGELING (*Macmillan*).
J. Barrington THE BOYNE WATER (*Duffy*).

SOURCE READING:

The Union of England and Scotland, 1707

"Article I.—That the two kingdoms of England and Scotland shall upon the first day of May, which shall be in the year 1707, and for ever after, be united into one kingdom by the name of Great Britain

"Article II.—That the succession to the monarchy of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and of the Dominions thereunto belonging, after her most sacred Majesty, and in default of issue of Her Majesty, be, remain, and continue to the Most Excellent Princess Sophia, Electress and Duchess Dowager of Hanover, and the heirs of her body, being Protestants, upon whom the Crown of England is settled by an Act of Parliament made in England in the twelfth year of the reign of his late Majesty King William III.

"Article III.—That the United Kingdom of Great Britain be represented by one and the same Parliament, to be styled the Parliament of Great Britain.

"Article IV.—That all the subjects of the United Kingdom of Great Britain shall, from and after the Union, have full freedom and intercourse of Trade and Navigation to and from any Port or Place within the said United Kingdom, and the Dominions and Plantations thereto belonging.

"Article XXII.—That by virtue of this Treaty, of the Peers of Scotland at the time of the Union, sixteen shall be the number to sit and vote in the House of Lords, and forty-five the number of the representatives of Scotland in the House of Commons of the Parliament of Great Britain"¹

Exercises on the Source Reading

- 1 What do you know about the events which led to the passing of this Act, and about its results?
- 2 What was the "Act of Parliament made in England in the twelfth year of the reign of his late Majesty King William III"? What were its terms?
- 3 What British subjects objected to Article II, and why?
- 4 When and how did Article II come into force?
- 5 Why was Article IV needed? Which part of Great Britain gained most by this Article?
- 6 What important terms of the Act of Union are omitted from this extract?

¹ From Grant Robertson, *Select Statutes and Documents*

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7 Write notes explaining the following: dominions, plantations, Electress, Hanover, Peers

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER VII

Charts, etc.

Make a Time Chart to illustrate the domestic history of Great Britain, 1689-1714, have separate columns for (a) party politics, (b) the relations of England and Scotland, (c) other events.

Draw a Graph to illustrate the variations in friendliness between England and Scotland, 1689-1714.

Questions

I

- 1 What do you know of the following: Bank of England, Act of Settlement, Massacre of Glencoe, Act of Security?
2. What is meant by the following: "Junta," cabinet government, party system, consols, Darien Scheme?
3. Trace clearly the stages by which it became customary to have a one-party "cabinet" during the years 1689-1714
4. What events caused enmity between English and Scots during the reign of William III?
- 5 How and when were the Parliaments of England and Scotland united?

II

1. What do we mean by the "National Debt"? By whom is it owed, and to whom? How, when, and why was it established?
- 2 Discuss the arguments for and against the Union of England and Scotland in 1707, as they would appear to (a) a Scot, (b) an Englishman.
- 3 Explain clearly what is meant by cabinet government, and how it came into existence.
- 4 Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of cabinet government.

CHAPTER VIII

WILLIAM III, MARLBOROUGH, AND THEIR WARS WITH LOUIS XIV

WILLIAM III was a Dutchman, and he cared more for Holland than for any other country. One of his chief reasons for accepting the British throne was that he wanted the alliance of England, with its army and still more its navy and its wealth, against Louis XIV of France. Louis had determined to conquer the republic of Holland and

to make himself master of Europe. William III had resolved that Louis should do neither, and he made it his life's work to thwart the ambitions of the French king. France was the greatest and most powerful country in Europe, and she could be overcome only by an alliance among the other powers. This alliance William gradually succeeded in building up; and his plans were complete when, in 1689, he became the king of England, and England joined his "Grand Alliance." War was declared in the same year, and it became known as the *War of the Grand Alliance*, with England, Holland, Austria, Spain, and a number of smaller powers arrayed against the French.

THE SECOND HUNDRED YEARS' WAR WITH FRANCE.—This war proved to be the first of a series of wars amongst the greater powers of Europe, lasting altogether all through the eighteenth and into the nineteenth century. From 1689 till 1815 there were seven of these wars on a large scale, and in every one of them England and France were on opposite sides, so that this long struggle has been called the *Second Hundred Years' War with France*.¹ At first the hostility of the two countries was due to the ambition of Louis XIV in Europe, but before long they were rivals for trade and colonies, eastwards in India and westwards in America, and before the Second Hundred Years' War was over the British Empire and British trade had grown to enormous proportions, mostly at the expense of France.

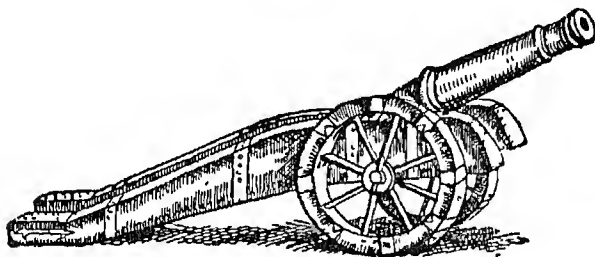
THE WAR OF THE GRAND ALLIANCE.—The War of the Grand Alliance lasted from 1689 to 1697. As was natural in a struggle between the ruler of Holland and the king of France, most of the fighting took place in the Netherlands—the "cockpit of Europe." William himself and the French generals were too cautious to stake great risks

¹ The names and dates of the seven wars are as follows:

War of the Grand Alliance, 1689-1697
 War of the Spanish Succession, 1702-1713.
 War of the Austrian Succession, 1740-1748.
 Seven Years' War, 1756-1763
 War of American Independence, 1775-1783.
 War against the French Revolution, 1793-1802.
 Napoleonic Wars, 1803-1815.

on pitched battles, and most of the military actions were sieges of important fortresses, such as Namur, which William captured in 1695. On the whole the war went in favour of the French—especially as the principal fortresses of the Netherlands had been rendered almost impregnable by the famous French military engineer, Vauban. But neither side gained a decisive victory.

Some English troops fought in the Netherlands, but England's principal part was played in Ireland and at sea. In Ireland, as we have seen, James II of England was defeated at the battle of the Boyne, where he had a number of French officers in his army, and was regarded by

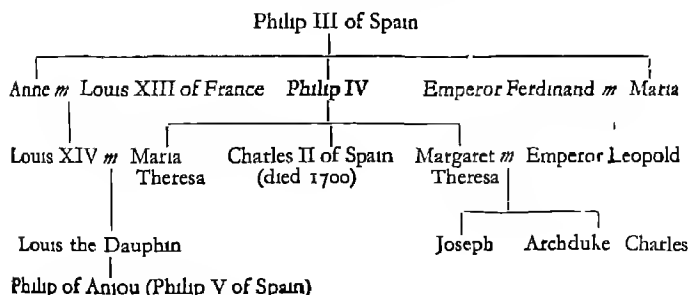


SEVENTEENTH-CENTURY ARTILLERY

Louis XIV as one of his allies. At sea England at first met with a severe rebuff, when her navy was beaten in 1690 at the battle of *Beachy Head*. This victory should have given the French the power to prevent troops and supplies from crossing the Channel to William in the Netherlands; but the French failed to take full advantage of it, and in 1692 they were defeated in turn at the battle of *La Hogue*. From that time William's communications across the Channel were safe until the war was ended by the *Treaty of Ryswick* in 1697. The chief provision of this treaty was that each side should return its conquests; consequently it was not a satisfactory settlement; both sides were weary of war for the time being, but both knew that it would break out again at the first suitable opportunity.

THE SPANISH SUCCESSION QUESTION—That opportunity was not long in coming. It was provided by the question of the Spanish succession—who was to succeed to the throne of the ailing and childless Charles II of Spain? Unfortunately the nearest heirs were the two most powerful monarchs in Europe. They were Louis XIV himself and the *Emperor Leopold* of Austria, and both already had possessions so great that the other nations of Europe dared not allow either to obtain Spain as well. Both of them had married sisters of Charles II of Spain; and both of them (like Charles II himself) were grandsons of the Spanish king Philip III. Louis and Leopold realised well enough that Europe would permit neither of them to succeed to the Spanish throne, and therefore they both handed their claims to others—Louis to his younger grandson, *Philip of Anjou*, and Leopold to his younger son, the *Archduke Charles*. It was reasonable to expect that neither of these younger sons would ever succeed to any other throne, and the question was, which of them should become king of Spain¹ After long negotiations among the diplomatists of Europe, a *Partition Treaty* was arranged in 1700, dividing the Spanish Empire between them. Charles of Austria was to be king of Spain, with America and the Netherlands, while Philip of France was given the Spanish possessions in Italy. This settlement, no doubt, was favourable to Austria, but the powers of Europe were afraid to give Spain to the brother of a future king of France, and

¹ The following table will make clear the various claims:



England, in particular, could not permit the Netherlands, with their ports, to come under the control of France, which was already our chief rival in trade.

THE WAR OF THE SPANISH SUCCESSION —In 1700 Charles II of Spain died, and by his will he left the whole of the Spanish Empire to Philip of Anjou. Louis XIV now had to decide whether to honour the promises he had made in the Partition Treaty, or to take advantage of the will and grasp this mighty inheritance for his grandson. The temptation proved too strong, he accepted the will, and, in consequence, he was plunged into a war against the principal countries of Europe.

This war was called the War of the Spanish Succession (1702-1713); but only a few of the combatants were interested chiefly in the succession question. Holland, as usual, was fighting to maintain her independence against France. England's objects were several—trade rivalry (and, as the war went on, colonial rivalry) with France was one of them. Another was the English succession, for when our James II died in 1701 Louis foolishly recognised his son (the Old Pretender) as king of England. If the French had won, England would probably have had the Pretender back as James III; and so the English were fighting in this war not only to expand their trade and their empire, but also to preserve the Protestant succession to the English throne.

THE DUKE OF MARLBOROUGH —In this war (unlike the last) there was a commander who was a military genius, and he carried all before him. This was the *Duke of Marlborough*, who, when William III died in 1702, became the allied commander-in-chief in the Netherlands. He did what William had never been able to do—break through the French fortresses and trenches, and compel the enemy to fight battles in the open. Consequently this war was one of battles, and not chiefly of sieges, as the War of the Grand Alliance had been.

As before, most of the fighting was in the Netherlands, where Marlborough was in command of an army composed of English, Dutch, Belgians, and Germans, who spoke

several different languages and wanted to fight for different objects. The English wanted to prevent France from gaining possession of more ports across the Channel, the Dutch wanted to keep the French from advancing northwards into Holland; while the Germans wanted to strengthen their frontiers on the east of France. It was difficult enough for Marlborough to persuade his mixed allies to fight together even in the Netherlands. But in the year 1704 it became necessary to persuade them to abandon the defence of their own frontiers and to rush to the assistance of the Austrians, whose capital, Vienna, was being threatened by a powerful French army.

THE BATTLE OF BLENHEIM.—At this crisis Marlborough's military genius enabled him to save his Austrian ally. Marching towards the river Moselle, he deceived both the French and the Dutch into believing that he was going to invade France, and then, turning suddenly eastwards, he dashed across Germany towards Vienna, and overtook the French army at *Blenheim*, on the Danube. Here, hundreds of miles from his base in Flanders, he completely routed the French army, and took prisoner their general, Marshal Tallard. Vienna was saved, and for the rest of the war Marlborough was at liberty to devote himself to forcing back the French from the Netherlands.

MARLBOROUGH IN THE NETHERLANDS.—This he succeeded in doing during the next five years. The year after *Blenheim* was spent by both armies in manœuvring for position, but in 1706 another decisive battle was fought,



SOLDIER, IN THE TIME
OF MARLBOROUGH

at *Ramillies*, when Marlborough forced the French from the chief cities and fortresses of Belgium. In the following year, however, they won back a good deal of northern Belgium, and another pitched battle was necessary. At *Oudenarde*, in 1708, the French were finally driven from Flanders; and in the next year Marlborough defeated them on their own soil, at *Malplaquet*.

After the battle of Malplaquet, the French continued to retreat further into their own country, and in the next campaign Marlborough might have advanced as far as Paris. But Louis XIV was weary of the war, and he now tried to obtain peace. The negotiations failed, but in the meantime the English Government had passed from the Whigs (the war party which supported Marlborough) to the Tories, who desired peace. In 1711 the Tories withdrew Marlborough from the command of the English army, and for the next two years they directed their chief efforts, not to carrying on the war, but to negotiating for peace.

THE WAR AT SEA — While Marlborough was winning his victories in Austria and the Netherlands, the French were having little better fortune on other fronts. They did best in Spain, where the people, who wanted Philip of Anjou for their king, supported the French, and in 1707 the British army in Spain was badly defeated at the battle of *Almanza*. Elsewhere, however, the French met with little success. In North Italy they met their match in *Prince Eugène*, who helped Marlborough to win the Blenheim campaign in 1704, and who, in 1706, himself defeated a French army at *Turin*. But it was at sea that the English obtained their chief gains. In 1704, the year of Blenheim, *Gibraltar* was captured by Admiral *Rooke*, and it has enabled us, ever since, to command the entrance to the Mediterranean Sea. Four years later the capture of *Minorca* gave us a fine naval base inside the Mediterranean.

THE WAR IN AMERICA — It was not only in Europe that French and British fought the War of the Spanish Succession. This war, like the rest of those in the Second Hundred Years' War with France, was, from Britain's point of view, mainly a war for colonies and trade, and the British

colonists in America played their part. In 1710 the men of New England succeeded in capturing the French colony of *Acadie*, at the mouth of the Saint Lawrence river, and this proved to be the first of many conquests from France in North America during the eighteenth century.

THE PEACE OF UTRECHT.—All these victories bore their fruit for England when peace was made at *Utrecht* in 1713. *Acadie* became British, and was renamed *Nova Scotia* in honour of the recent union between England and Scotland.



A SEVENTEENTH-CENTURY SHIP

At the same time France gave up her claims to *Newfoundland* and the *Hudson's Bay Territory*, about which French and British had been quarrelling for many years. In Europe Britain retained *Gibraltar* and *Minorca*, both at the expense of Spain, which also made an agreement (called the *Assiento*) to grant valuable trading rights to the British in South America. Finally, the original causes of the war were settled to the satisfaction of both sides. Louis XIV recognised the Protestant succession in Great Britain; and in return Britain recognised Philip of Anjou as king of Spain. Thus it might appear that France had gained the chief

object of the war, which was to secure the Spanish succession for a French prince, and for a few months the Austrians refused to agree. Finally, however, Austria was compensated by receiving the possessions of Spain in Italy and the Netherlands.

Thus the peace which ended the War of the Spanish Succession brought gain to all sides, and it therefore lasted longer than the Peace of Ryswick, which had settled nothing. In 1715 Louis XIV died, after a reign of seventy-two years, and France had rest from wars caused by his ambition. Queen Anne of England and Scotland had died in the previous year, and, in accordance with the Act of Settlement, George of Hanover, a peace-loving German, became British king as George I.

Books for further reading.

GENERAL

- E. M. Wilmot-Buxton: *THE STRUGGLE WITH THE CROWN* (*Harrap*).
 C. T. Atkinson: *MARLBOROUGH* (*Putnam*).
 G. Saintsbury: *MARLBOROUGH* (*Longmans*).
 A. Hassall: *LOUIS XIV* (*Putnam*).

NOVELS

- Thackeray: *ESMOND*
 W. Harrison Ainsworth: *SAINT JAMES'S*
 G. A. Henty: *THE CORNET OF HORSE* (*Blackie*)
 Sir A. T. Quiller-Couch: *THE BLUE PAVILIONS* (*Dent*).

SOURCE READINGS

Two Notes from Marlborough to his Wife

Each of these notes was written at night, immediately after one of Marlborough's great victories. The first was scribbled on the back of an army supply form, the second was a hurried postscript added to a letter written the day before.

(1)

"August 13th, 1704.

"I have not the time to say more, but to beg you will give my duty to the Queen, and let her know her army has had a glorious victory. M. Tallard and two other generals are in my coach, and I am following the rest. The bearer, my aide-de-camp, Colonel Parke, will give her an account of what has passed. I shall do it in a day or two by another more at large

"MARLBOROUGH."

(ii)

"September 11, 1709.

"I am so tired that I have but strength enough to tell you that we have had this day a very bloody battle the first part of the day we beat their foot, and afterwards their horse God Almighty be praised, it is now in our power to have what peace we please, and I may be pretty well assured of never being in another battle. but that nor nothing in this world can make me happy if you are not kind."

Exercises on the Source Readings

1. To which of Marlborough's battles does each of these notes refer? What are the names of the others?

2. In what country was each of the notes written, and why was Marlborough there at the time?

3. Who was "M 'Tallard," and why was he in Marlborough's coach?

4. What does Marlborough mean by the words "I am following the rest"?

5. Paraphrase in your own words the last sentence of note (i). Why "in a day or two" and not at once?

6. When and where was the peace anticipated by Marlborough in note (ii) signed? Why was the interval between the battle and the peace so long? Would Marlborough have considered that it might be described as "what peace we please"? Give reasons for your answer.

7. What can you learn from these notes about the character of (a) Marlborough, (b) the Duchess of Marlborough?

8. Can you detect in these two notes any signs of change in Marlborough during the five years' interval between them? Give what reasons you can for your answer.

9. Copy out plans illustrating each of these two battles.

10. Draw maps to illustrate the campaigns leading up to these two battles.

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER VIII

Charts, etc

Make Time Charts to illustrate

1. The reign of Louis XIV, (ii) 1685-1715 (have separate columns for (a) wars, (b) the domestic history of France)

2. The Second Hundred Years' War with France, (i) 1689-1713

Draw Graphs to illustrate

1. English fortunes in the wars with France, 1689-1713.

2. The influence and popularity of Marlborough, 1702-1711.

Draw Maps or Plans of

1. The Netherlands and the English Channel, to illustrate the wars of 1689-1713

2. The Atlantic coasts, to illustrate English gains at the Treaty of Utrecht.

3. The Spanish Empire in 1700 and its partition owing to the "Spanish Succession Question"

4. The campaign of Blenheim.

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5. The battle of Blenheim

6. The Western Mediterranean, to show the importance of Gibraltar and Minorca

Questions

I

1. What do you know of the following Vauban, battle of Beachy Head, battle of La Hougue, Treaty of Ryswick, Charles II of Spain, Emperor Leopold I, Archduke Charles, Philip of Anjou, battle of Blenheim, battle of Ramillies, battle of Oudenarde, battle of Malplaquet, battle of Almanza, Prince Eugène, battle of Turin, Admiral Rooke, Minorca, Acadie?

2. What is the meaning of the following "Grand Alliance," Second Hundred Years' War, "cockpit of Europe," Partition Treaty, Assiento?

3. Write accounts of (a) the War of the Grand Alliance, (b) Marlborough's campaigns in Flanders, (c) British fighting outside Flanders, 1702-1713, (d) the Spanish Succession War at sea

4. For what different reasons was the Treaty of Ryswick an unsatisfactory settlement?

5. For what different reasons did England fight in (a) the War of the Grand Alliance, (b) the War of the Spanish Succession?

6. What countries besides England and France took part in the War of the Spanish Succession, and why?

7. Make lists of the gains made at the Treaty of Utrecht by (a) Britain, (b) France

II

1. What do we mean by the Spanish Succession question? What different rulers were concerned in it, and how? Why was it difficult to decide between the claimants?

2. Write an account of the life of Marlborough, and explain why he is regarded as a great general

3. Show how domestic events in Britain were connected with military events during the period of the Spanish Succession War

4. In what ways was the Treaty of Utrecht (a) satisfactory, (b) unsatisfactory, to Britain and to France?

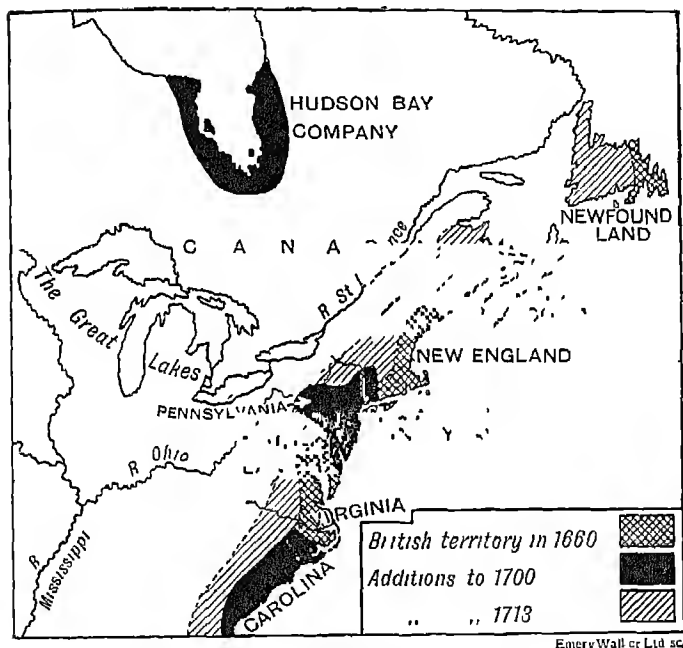
5. For what reasons do you suppose Louis XIV is regarded as one of the greatest of French kings?

CHAPTER IX

THE BEGINNINGS OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE

THE AGE OF COLONISATION.—The seventeenth century is one of the most important in British history, not only because of the changes which took place in Great Britain, but also because it saw the beginnings of the British Empire

abroad. From the first, that empire was founded on the desire of the British for two things—religious freedom, and trade. It was in the search for new openings for trade that the work of the Elizabethan seamen had been done. Willoughby and Chancellor, though they failed to find the North-East Passage, prepared the way for the trade



THE GROWTH OF THE BRITISH COLONIES IN AMERICA
during the seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries

of the Muscovy Company ; Frobisher, Davis, and Hudson himself, similarly prepared the way for the Hudson Bay Company by their search for the North-West Passage, the Levant Company and the East India Company laid the foundations of the British colonies in the east ; and Drake, Hawkins, Raleigh, and others made markets for English goods in South America.

But the sea-dogs of the Elizabethan Age did more than this : by beating the Spanish Armada they made it possible for this country to compete successfully with Spain for the possession of the New World. By a "bull" issued in 1493 Pope Alexander VI had divided the New World between Spain and Portugal ; but, after the Reformation, Protestant states were not likely to keep away from the new lands merely because the Pope had ordered it ; they resolved to compete in colonisation with the Catholic powers, and, by beating the Spaniards in the sixteenth century, the English and Dutch made easier the expansion of their own trade and empire in the seventeenth century. In fact, the seventeenth century proved to be the great age of English colonisation. France, too, joined in the great race for colonies ; in the sixteenth century French traders and French missionaries had opened up the valley of the Saint Lawrence River ; and early in the seventeenth they founded two fresh colonies there—*Acadie* and *Canada*. The Dutch and Swedes founded in North America a *New Amsterdam* and a *New Sweden* ; but the former preferred to concentrate on the opposite end of the world, by establishing colonies and trading stations in the East Indies. England competed with both of them, as well as with Spain, in the East Indies they gradually captured the trade from the Dutch, in North America they eventually added most of the foreign colonies to the British Empire.

THE PLANTATION OF VIRGINIA—The first English colony to be firmly established in America was *Virginia*. It had been so named in honour of Elizabeth, the virgin queen, but in her reign Raleigh's effort to plant a colony there had failed, and it was not till 1607–1608 that a successful settlement was made. There were long and deadly struggles with the Red Indians, and still more deadly struggles with disease in that unaccustomed climate. But gradually the difficulties were overcome, and Virginia won its way to wealth and prosperity as a tobacco-cultivating country.

THE RELIGIOUS COLONIES.—Virginia was a *plantation*, that is, a colony founded for farmers and traders by men

whose chief aim was to make money. During the next generation or two, however, most new colonies were established for a very different reason. The seventeenth century was the age of religious strife in England, and many Puritans sought a refuge overseas from the religious penal statutes. Quite early in the century a band of such Puritans emigrated to Holland; and a few years later (in 1620) a hundred and two of them (ever since known as the *Pilgrim Fathers*) chartered an English ship, the *Mayflower*, and sailed in it for the shores of America. There, more than three months after leaving Plymouth harbour, they landed on mid-winter day, 1620, and they founded there a new town which they called New Plymouth, and which became the nucleus of the colony of *New England*. Others followed their example. In 1629 a number of Puritan churchmen founded the *Massachusetts Company*, nominally for purposes of trade, but really to form the independent colony of *Massachusetts*. Within the next ten years *Connecticut* and *New Haven* were established as offshoots of Massachusetts, and thus, by the time the civil war began in England, there was a solid block of Puritan colonies in North America, between the Hudson River and the sea. In 1642 these four states joined themselves in a federation,¹ called the *United Colonies of New England*.

The Puritans were not the only Englishmen to seek religious liberty across the Atlantic. In 1633-4 the Roman Catholic Lord Baltimore established the Catholic colony of *Maryland*, and there, almost alone in the world at that time, there was real religious freedom, for toleration was granted in Maryland to all kinds of Christians—whereas the Puritans of New England were as tyrannical as anybody towards those who disagreed with their own form of worship.

COLONIES BY CONQUEST.—By the middle of the century Maryland and New England provided enough outlet for the nonconformists of the mother country, and for a time religious colonisation ceased. Nevertheless, the expansion of the British Empire continued. In 1655, as we have seen, *Jamaica* was captured from the Spaniards;

¹ I.e. a union of independent states.

and although it was thought little of at first, it eventually proved far more valuable than Hispaniola, which was what Cromwell had wanted. The first Dutch War after the Restoration¹ brought a more important conquest still. This was New Netherland, with its seaport New Amsterdam. It had been founded by the Dutch West India Company, but it was captured in 1664, and became British with the name of *New York*. It was a particularly important conquest. For one thing, it had a fine harbour, with a good waterway (the Hudson River) through the Alleghany mountains to the Great Lakes. More important still, it was a link between the New England colonies of the north and Maryland and Virginia further south, so that there was now a continuous belt of British colonies along the eastern seaboard of North America.

Moreover, this line of colonies was at the same time made still longer at its southern end. The greatest statesmen of the reign of Charles II were keen on colonisation for its own sake, and in 1663 Ashley (Shaftesbury) and some others were granted a charter for the foundation of another colony, which they named *Carolina* in honour of the king. This colony (and all others from that time) was compelled to grant religious toleration to all its citizens (we must remember that at this time Charles II was trying to do the same in England, by means of Declarations of Indulgence), and so no more religious colonies were founded, except *Pennsylvania*, established in 1682 by the Quaker *William Penn*—for there was little toleration anywhere at that time for the "Friends," as the Quakers called themselves.

THE GOVERNMENT OF THE COLONIES.—The various colonies of England in America began, as we have seen, in different ways. Some belonged to trading companies, like Massachusetts, which was the property of the Massachusetts Company; some, like Maryland and Pennsylvania, were the private property of individuals. But all of them, before long, developed the same sort of government, and it was a government much like that of the mother country. In place of the king, each colony had a *governor*, who was

¹ See pp 297-8.

appointed sometimes by the English Government, and sometimes by the colonists themselves. In place of ministers (or a Cabinet, as it was coming to be called at home in England), the governor had a *council*, and this, like the governor, was appointed either by the English Government or by the colonists. But there was a more important part still in every colonial government, and it became still more important as time went on. This was the colonial *Assembly*, which was elected by the colonists, and corresponded to the House of Commons. Each Assembly had the power of passing laws, with the consent of the council and the governor, and during the seventeenth century the assemblies obtained control over the governments of their colonies, in the same way as the English House of Commons obtained control of the government of England—that is, by refusing to supply the governor with money unless he did much as they wished. In other words, the policy of “redress before supplies” had the same effect in the colonies as it had in England—it made the representative assembly the real ruler of the country. Thus, by the early part of the eighteenth century, the American colonies were even more democratic than Great Britain was.

THE OLD COLONIAL SYSTEM —Nevertheless, there was one respect in which the colonies were too completely under the control of the home country—that was, in all matters connected with trade. In the seventeenth century England was building up a prosperous merchant marine, and not even the colonies were allowed to interfere with its development. Thus the Navigation Acts were a blow, not only to our rivals the Dutch, but also to our colonies. The Navigation Act of 1651¹ forbade them to export their merchandise in the ships of the Dutch, who were still the greatest shippers in the world. When this Act was renewed after the Restoration (in 1661), clauses were added compelling the colonists to send many of their most important products (such as tobacco, sugar, and cotton) to England alone, and thus deprived them of valuable

¹ See p. 283.

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markets in other countries. In return, the colonies were given some advantages, including the sole right to import sugar and tobacco into England. But the Americans always resented any interference with their trade for the mother country's benefit. They often avoided obeying the Navigation Acts, and a good deal of smuggling went on. In fact, they resented the belief of the people in England that colonies should be used for the advantage of their parent countries, instead of being permitted to develop in their own way—though all the peoples of Europe then acted on the same principles, which are now known as the *Old Colonial System*. So long as this Old Colonial System was not enforced too strictly, no great harm was done; but when, in the later eighteenth century, the English Government began to be less easy-going, the colonists rebelled and broke away from the Empire.¹

THE BRITISH EMPIRE AFTER THE PEACE OF UTRECHT.—At the Peace of Utrecht (1713) the British Empire became greater than ever. That peace ended the first part of our second Hundred Years' War with France, in which, as we have seen, England was chiefly concerned in increasing her trade and empire. Consequently, the British gains by the peace were chiefly colonial. By the acquisition from France of Acadie (now renamed *Nova Scotia*) the British coast-line on the east of North America was lengthened still more. Moreover, the new British possession of *Newfoundland* lay opposite the mouth of the Saint Lawrence, threatening the French colony of Canada. And the *Hudson Bay Territory* opened up the fur trade of the north. Though other countries held more land in America than Britain, the British were now the most active and the most progressive race in the New World, and the way lay open for still greater expansion in the eighteenth century.

Books for further reading :

GENERAL

C S S. Higham HISTORY OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE (*Longmans*).

Ramsay Muir SHORT HISTORY OF THE BRITISH COMMONWEALTH (*Philip*).

¹ See pp. 336 and 383-4.

BEGINNINGS OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE 335

- J A Williamson BUILDERS OF THE EMPIRE (*Oxford Univ Press*)
G. W Morris and L S Wood THE ENGLISH-SPEAKING NATIONS (*Oxford Univ Press*)

NOVELS

- John Masfield LOST ENDEAVOUR (*Nelson*)
Sir Gilbert Parker THE POWER AND THE GLORY (*Hodder and Stoughton*)
Sir Gilbert Parker THE FRAIL OF THE SWORD (*Methuen*)
John Buchan SALUTE TO ADVENTURERS (*Nelson*)
Mary Johnston BY ORDER OF THE COMPANY (*Constable*)

SOURCE READINGS

Adventurers and Colonists in the Seventeenth Century

- (i) A royal proclamation asking for recruits for Virginia.

"FOR the Plantation in VIRGINIA, or NOVA BRITANNIA.

"WHEREAS (if God permit) for the better settling of the Colony and Plantation in VIRGINIA, there is a voyage intended thither by many Noblemen, Knights, Marchants and others, to be furnished and set forth with all convenient speed: And for that so honorable an action, pleasing to God, and commodious many waies to this Commonwealth, should be furthered and furnished with all meanes and provisions necessarie for the same, wherein both honorable and worshipful personages doe purpose to prepare to goe thither in their owne persons

"This is therefore to intimate and give notice to al Artificers, Smiths, Carpenters, Coopers, Shipwrights, Turners, Planters, Vinears, Fowlers, Fishermen, Mettell-men of all sorts, Brick-makers, Bricklayers, Plowmen, Weavers, Shoo-makers, Sawyers, Spinsters, and all other labouring men and women, that are willing to goe to the said plantation to inhabite there, that if they repayre into Philpot Lane to the house of Sir Thomas Smith, Treasurer to the said colony, their names shall be registred, and their persons shall be esteemed at a single share, which is Twelve Pound ten shillings, and they shall be admitted to goe as Adventurers in the said Voyage to Virginia, where they shall have houses to dwell in, with Gardens and Orchards, and also food and clothing at the common charge of the Joynt Stock; they shall have their Divident also in all goods and marchandizes arising thence by their labours, and likewise their Divident in Lands to them and to their heyres for ever: And if they shall also bring in money to Adventure in the Joynt Stock, their shares, both in goods and lands, shalbe augmented accordingly

"And likewise al other that wil bring in Twenty five pound

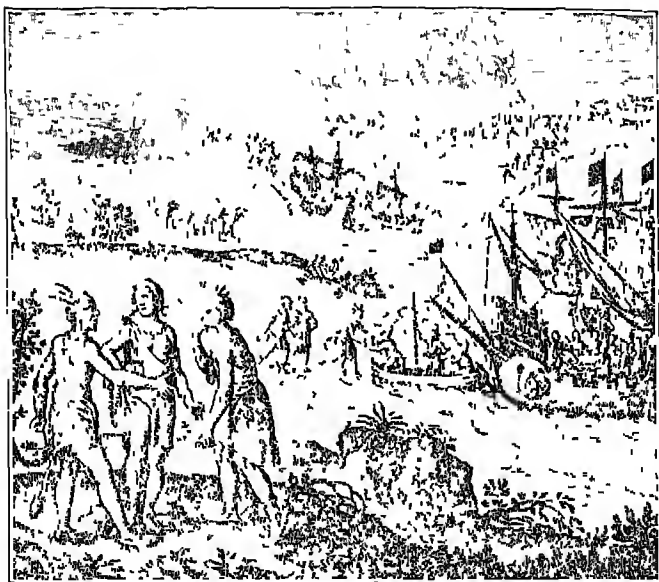
or more by the last of *March*, though they goe not in their persons, shall be accepted for Freemen of the Company, and shall have their Billes of Adventure, as all other Adventurers have in the same action

London

Printed by JOHN WINDET, 1609 "1

- (11) An account of Maryland written in 1656 by John Hammond, a seventeenth-century colonist.

"*Maryland* is a province not commonly knowne in England, because the name of *Virginia* includes or clouds it. It is a country



ENGLISH COLONISTS LANDING IN VIRGINIA

"Adventurers" trading and fighting with Red Indians (from a print of 1634)

wholy belonging to that honorable Gentleman, the Lord of Baltamoie, granted him by Pattent under the broad Seal of England long since, and at his charge settled, granted for many reasons, and this for one—that Virginia having more land than

¹ From a copy in the British Museum.

they could defend . . . first the Dutch came and took from the English much land which they still hold, next, the Swed, who intrenched neerer. and had not this Patten came and prevented it, Dutch, Swed, French and other strangers had pend up our nation within the bounds of Virginia, whereas now they have all Maryland, as it were their own, it being only granted for the use of Brittaines and Irish.”¹

Questions on the Source Readings

- 1 What is the meaning of plantation, commonwealth, adventurer, billes of adventure, joynt stock, dividint, Patten?
- 2 What do you know about the history of colonisation in (a) Virginia, (b) Maryland? What is the significance of each of these two names?
- 3 Why is Virginia called *Nova Britannia*? Of what other colonies do you know with a similar kind of name?
- 4 What class of emigrant was the Virginia proclamation intended to attract? Give reasons for your answer.
- 5 For what purposes would the different kinds of “labouring men and women” mentioned in the Virginia proclamation be required?
- 6 What different kinds of “adventure” are mentioned in the proclamation? In what different ways were they rewarded?
- 7 What light is thrown by these two readings on seventeenth-century (a) trade, (b) prices, (c) methods of colonisation?
- 8 What reasons are given for the founding of Maryland? What other reasons do you know?
- 9 In what ways were Virginia and Maryland different as regards (a) the reasons for founding them, (b) their owners, (c) their government?
- 10 Why do you suppose the “Irish” are specially mentioned in connection with Maryland?
- 11 In what ways would the settlers in Maryland differ from those in Virginia?
- 12 Find out as much as you can about Lord Baltimore
13. How old was (a) the colony of Maryland when Reading (ii) was written, (b) the colony of Virginia when Reading (ii) was written, (c) the colony of Virginia when Maryland was founded, (d) the colony of Virginia when the proclamation (Reading (i)) was issued?
14. “The Dutch came and took from the English much land which they still hold” What were these lands? How long did the Dutch hold them?
- 15 What English colonies founded in the seventeenth century are not mentioned in either of these readings?
- 16 Draw maps showing the lands held in North America by English, Dutch, Swedes, and French (a) at the date of the Virginia proclamation, (b) at the date of the account of Maryland.

¹ From *American History Told by Contemporaries*, by A. B. Hart.

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GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER IX

Charts, etc

Make a Time Chart to illustrate the growth of the British Empire, 1603-1714 (have separate columns for (a) colonies founded by traders, (b) colonies founded for religious reasons, (c) colonies conquered from other countries)

Make a Graph to illustrate the growth of the British Empire, 1603-1714.

Draw Maps of

- 1 The British Empire in (a) 1600, (b) 1650, (c) 1700, (d) 1714
- 2 The east coast of North America in (a) 1600, (b) 1650, (c) 1700, (d) 1714

Questions

I

1 What do you know of the following Muscovy Company, East India Company, Hudson Bay Company, Levant Company, Massachusetts Company, Dutch West India Company, Pope Alexander VI, Pilgrim Fathers, *The Mayflower*, Lord Baltimore, William Penn, New Netherlands?

2 What is meant by the following papal bull, Acadie, Canada, plantations, "United Colonies of New England," Navigation Acts, Old Colonial System?

3 When and how were the following added to the British Empire Virginia, New England, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Maryland, Jamaica, New York, Carolina, Pennsylvania?

4 Make lists of colonies founded by Englishmen in the seventeenth century for (a) commercial reasons, (b) religious reasons

5 What colonies were conquered from other nations between 1603 and 1714?

6 What do you know about French and Dutch colonisers in the seventeenth century and their rivalry with British colonisers?

II

1 Why was the capture of New York so important?

2 What part did religious difficulties play in the building of the British Empire?

3 Describe the way in which the American colonies were governed at the end of the seventeenth century.

4 In what ways was the progress of democracy in the colonies in the seventeenth century similar to that in the mother country?

5. What commercial grievances had the colonies against England in the seventeenth century? How far were (a) the colonies, (b) the mother country, in the right?

6. How many separate British states were there in North America in 1700? What steps had they already taken, by that date, towards becoming the "United States of America"?

CHAPTER X

LIFE AND LITERATURE IN STUART BRITAIN

THE Stuart period in Britain, which in politics was such a time of turmoil, was a fairly restful time in the lives of the people. The sixteenth century, as we read in a previous chapter, was a period of serious social change; but by the year 1600 most of the changes were accomplished, and during the seventeenth century the country developed quietly, without any of those violent upheavals which we call social or economic revolutions. The enclosing of common fields went on, but the village people appeared less discontented; and the Poor Law of Elizabeth was so successful that there were far fewer tramps and less poverty than there had been under the Tudors.

COUNTRY FOLK IN STUART TIMES —The economic changes of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries had left their mark upon Stuart England. By the end of the seventeenth century the villeins had disappeared. Some of them had fallen to the position of labourers, working for other people and possessing little or no land of their own. Some, on the other hand, had become *yeomen*, with an income of perhaps sixty or seventy pounds a year—quite enough for a comfortable living in those days, when wheat (and therefore bread) was nearly twice as cheap as it is now, and when other things were very much cheaper still in comparison. Moreover, bread, and much else which we now buy, was nearly always home-made. Those were still the days of the *Domestic System*, when not only most of the food but also most of the clothes were produced in the house. The farmhouse always contained its spinning-wheel and often its loom, and the occasional visits of the *middleman*, who brought the yarn for weaving or the cloth to be made into clothes, was always a welcome change in the monotony of everyday life. In some districts, such as the thick woods of Warwickshire and the Weald, many farms also had their own forges, where, in their spare time.

the farmer and his men beat out their own ploughshares, spades, nails, chains, and anything else made of iron which they required.

THE COUNTRY GENTRY.—As a rule the yeoman farmed his own land—sometimes still cultivating it in separate strips, in those districts where the three-field system survived, sometimes in enclosed fields. Most of the enclosures, however, were in the hands of tenant farmers,

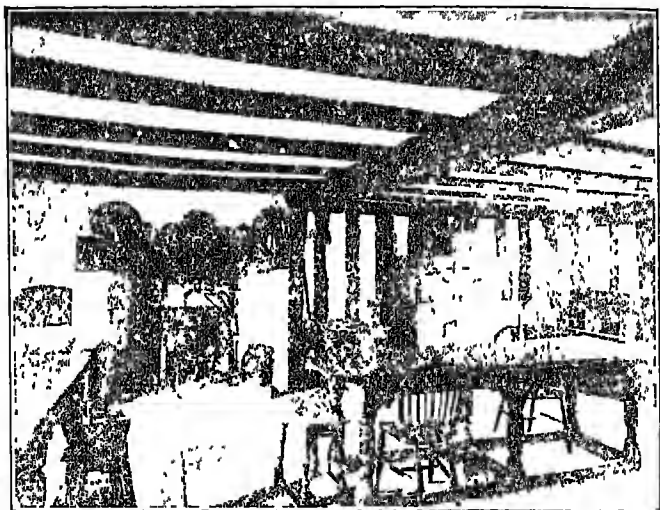


Photo Harold Barer Ltd.

A SEVENTEENTH-CENTURY KITCHEN

paying rent to a landlord for the use of their land. These landlords were the country gentry—*squires*, as they were usually called. The squire was the chief landowner in the village, and he lived at the “manor” or “hall.” Nevertheless, although he had the best house in the village, and was the “lord of the manor,” he was generally quite an uneducated man, with tastes as “common” as those of the other people of the village. Often enough he could not read, and even if he could, he rarely cared for books. His

amusements, like those of his tenants, were sport and drinking; and like them, too, he hardly ever went far from home, except to the nearest market town, to buy or sell farm produce or stock, or, less frequently, to act as magistrate at the county court.

TOWNS IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY—We must remember, too, that the towns of that time were quite unlike the towns of to-day. To us they would appear little better than villages. The biggest towns (except London) were ports near the coast, like Bristol and Norwich,



SEVENTEENTH-CENTURY HAWKERS

which had about thirty thousand inhabitants apiece. But most of them were merely market towns for the country-folk around, with only a few streets and a few shops, and nothing at all of the smoke and grime of a modern manufacturing town. For in those days towns were not meant for manufacture particularly, but for trade. Manufacture, as we have seen, went on as much in the country as in the towns, and except on market day, the towns of the seventeenth century would be as sleepy as most modern villages. Very few of them, indeed, had as many as five thousand inhabitants.

The seventeenth century knew nothing of the town-planning of which we are so proud in our own days.

Although there was plenty of land to spare, houses were crowded together in the centre of the town, on either side of streets so narrow that the overhanging upper storeys seemed to be almost touching. In towns like this, so huddled together, with no pure water supply and no proper drainage, disease was very common; and there were frequent occurrences of small-pox, cholera, and that other disease which was known as the plague.

LONDON.—Even London, which in many other respects was like no other English town, was like the rest in this. In this century (in 1665) it experienced one of the worst of its outbreaks of the plague; and in the following year it suffered from that other foe of these towns, with their crowded wooden houses—fire. The Great Fire of London, in 1666, however, although it was a terrible disaster at the time, did more good than harm. It killed the plague germ so thoroughly that there has never been a severe outbreak since, and it enabled the city to be rebuilt in a way more worthy of its half a million inhabitants. Fifty or sixty of its ninety churches were rebuilt in the Renaissance style—most of them (including the biggest of them all, Saint Paul's Cathedral) by England's greatest architect, *Sir Christopher Wren*. Nevertheless, even after it was rebuilt, London was far from perfect. Its water supply and drainage were, if anything, worse than those of other towns; and it was not till the end of the seventeenth century that any lights were placed in the streets at night time.

AMUSEMENTS IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.—With all their drawbacks, the towns of Stuart England were not without amusements. These were much the same as they had been in previous ages—rough games either in the streets or in the town fields, for the towns were still rural enough to have their fields, which provided food for the townsfolk. Outdoor games and dancing were bound to be the chief kind of amusement in those days, when no town except London had anything nearer to a theatre than a barn, or other building, in which travelling players could give their shows.

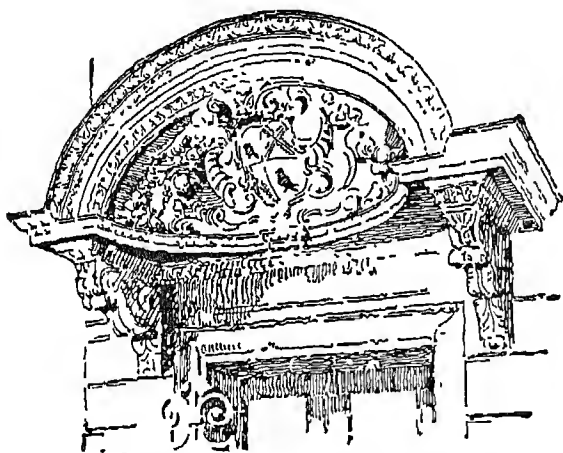
Towards the end of the century there were established

in London a number of *coffee houses* (cafés, we should call them). In them men with tastes in common met regularly, not only to smoke and drink coffee (which had only recently been introduced into the country), but also to discuss topics which interested them. Thus the literary men met at Will's coffee house, Tories and clergymen at Child's, and so on, to chat and read the news. At that time news was spread chiefly by word of mouth, though one or two of the earliest newspapers and magazines were established in this century—such as the *Examiner*, a paper for Whigs, and the *Postman* or the *Observer* for Tories.

MUSIC—Then there was always music to fall back upon, and in the seventeenth century music flourished. The wives of the country gentry (the squires), though they could rarely read, could usually play some sort of musical instrument—either one of those ancestors of our piano called “virginals” (the spinet, the clavichord, or the harpsichord), or some stringed instrument such as a viol or the lute. Besides being popular for its own sake, music was in great demand for dancing and singing, and most of the best music of those times was in the form of song or dance. *Henry Lawes* is said to have been one of the first song writers to fit the music to the meaning of the words; and among many composers of dance music, the greatest of all was *Purcell*, whom many people still think the greatest composer Britain has ever produced. His biggest works were operas and church music, but it is still his suites of dances which are most popular.

LITERATURE—The masque—that combination of singing, dancing, beautiful costume and beautiful scenery—remained popular for the first half of the seventeenth century. The most famous of all masques in the English language was performed in 1634, at Ludlow Castle on the River Severn, to celebrate the appointment of the Earl of Bridgwater to be Lord President of Wales. It was called *Comus*. The music was composed by Henry Lawes, who himself acted in it, and the words, at Lawes's request, were written by *John Milton*, the greatest of all seventeenth-century writers, and one of the greatest of English poets.

MILTON.—In his early years Milton's poetry was much like that of the men who lived in Shakespeare's day—men who were interested in the Renaissance (the new learning and the new discoveries) and whose poetry was modelled on that of the Greeks and Romans, and full of references to Greek and Roman legends. *Comus* was like this, and so were *L'Allegro* ("The Happy Man"), *Il Penseroso* ("The Thoughtful Man"), and the sonnets which Milton wrote.



PORCH OF A TOWN HOUSE ABOUT 1700.

Milton, however, was a Puritan (he was, for a time, Secretary to the Commonwealth Government), and as he grew older his poetry became fuller of references to the Puritan religion. His greatest work of all is *Paradise Lost*, a very long *epic* poem about the strife between God and Satan for the soul of man at the time of the creation. This poem was followed by *Paradise Regained*, which is much shorter and not so good. There is another poem of Milton's which shows his interest in Bible (especially Old Testament) subjects. This is *Samson Agonistes*—a play about Samson and the Philistines : and it had another and

more pathetic interest for Milton, who, in his later years, became blind, like Samson himself

BUNYAN.—These three religious poems were written after the Restoration of 1660, when the Puritans were unpopular, and were suffering much ill-treatment. Among the Puritans imprisoned at the time of the Clarendon Code was *John Bunyan*, who spent many years in Bedford gaol for holding nonconformist conventicles. It was while he was in prison that he wrote most of his greatest book *The Pilgrim's Progress*—the tale of the journey of the hero, Christian, from the City of Destruction to the Celestial City, and of the adventures he met with on the way.

RESTORATION LITERATURE.—When *Pilgrim's Progress* was published (in 1667) it was (like the poems of Milton) too religious for the taste of Charles II and his subjects, who were much fonder of the poems and plays written by younger men. None of these works, however, have lasted as well as those of Milton, the Puritan poet, and Bunyan, the Puritan prose writer, and only one of the Restoration poets is now considered to have reached real greatness. This is *Dryden*, who died in the last year of the century. One or two of his poems were religious, but they were not Puritan but Catholic—attempts to recommend to the English people the Roman Catholic religion, to which Dryden belonged. His most famous work, however, was about politics. It was a *satire* ridiculing Shaftesbury and the Whigs, and although its title (*Absalom and Achitophel*) was taken from an Old Testament story, it was not at all religious in character.

LITERATURE IN THE AGE OF ANNE.—At the very beginning of the eighteenth century a new poet (*Pope*) was coming to the front. Like Dryden, he was a Catholic, and in many respects his poetry is like Dryden's, though he chose very different subjects. Most of his best work was written after the end of the Stuart period. Another satirist of the age of Anne was *Dean Swift*, the author of *Gulliver's Travels*, which is not only an interesting set of stories, but also a clever criticism of the customs of the age.

During the last three or four years of this period (1711-

1714) there was published a work which is perhaps more read to-day than any other writing of the time. This was not a book but a magazine—*The Spectator*. It consisted mainly of light articles or essays, which were read then, as now, simply for pleasure. Most of them were written by two men who still rank among the greatest of English essayists—*Addison* and *Steele*, and their essays will probably last as long as the English language, not only because they are written in a light and interesting manner, but also because they created one of the most famous characters in English literature—Sir Roger de Coverley.

SCIENCE IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.—Thus, by the end of the Stuart period, literature had become mainly a matter of pleasure and amusement. Nevertheless, the seventeenth century was by no means a time chiefly of pleasure. As we have seen, it was an age which gave us our modern English constitution. And it was also one of the greatest ages in the history of English science. About the middle of the period (in 1660, the year of the Restoration) was founded the *Royal Society*, which is still the chief scientific body in the country. Moreover, this century witnessed the work of several of the most famous English scientists, including *William Harvey*, the first man to explain the circulation of the blood in the human body; *Robert Boyle*, the discoverer of “Boyle’s law”; *Edmund Halley*, the astronomer, to whom we owe much of our knowledge of the movements of comets; and, above all, *Isaac Newton*, who became President of the Royal Society in 1703, and who is famous chiefly on account of his scientific explanation of the law of gravity. One other name must be mentioned in connection with the science of the seventeenth century—that of *Galileo*, whose discoveries revolutionised our ideas about the movements of the earth, the sun, and the other heavenly bodies. He was not an Englishman, and all his work was done abroad, but he and Newton completed the work begun during the Renaissance by Copernicus in revealing the true nature of the heavens, and their two names are sufficient to place this amongst the foremost epochs in the history of science.

Books for further reading :

GENERAL

- M and C H B Quennell HISTORY OF EVERYDAY THINGS (*Batsford*).
 D Hartley and M M Elliott LIFE AND WORK OF THE PEOPLE OF ENGLAND
 (*Batsford*)
 Traill and Mann SOCIAL ENGLAND (*Cassell*)
 Whicher and Mitchell · ENGLISH PEOPLE OF THE PAST (*Longmans*).
 Pepys DIARY
 J H Tanner MR PEPYS (*Bell*).

NOVELS

- Thackeray ESMOND.
 W Harrison Ainsworth, OLD SAINT PAUL'S
 R D Blackmore, LORNA DOONE
 Edna Lyall, IN THE GOLDEN DAYS (*Hurst and Blackett*).
 Netta Syrett · LADY JEM (*Hutchinson*)
 Rafael Sabatini · FORTUNE'S FOOT (*Hutchinson*)

SOURCE READINGS

(i) *A Sonnet by Milton*

To Mr H. Lawes on his airs

Harry, whose tuneful and well-measured song
 First taught our English music how to span
 Words with just note and accent, not to scan
 With Midas' ears, committing short and long,
 Thy worth and skill exempts thee from the throng,
 With praise enough for Envy to look wan,
 To after-age thou shalt be writ the man
 That with smooth air couldst humour best our tongue.
 Thou honour'st Verse, and Verse must send her wing
 To honour thee, the priest of Phœbus' choir,
 That tun'st their happiest lines in hymn or story.
 Dante shall give Fame leave to set thee higher
 Than his Casella, whom he wooed to sing,
 Met in the milder shades of Purgatory.

(ii) *The Spectator*

"I have passed my latter years in this city, where I am frequently seen in most public places, though there are not above half a dozen of my select friends that know me; of whom my next paper shall give a more particular account. There is no place of general resort wherein I do not often make my appearance. Sometimes I am seen thrusting my head into a round of

politicians at Will's, and listening with great attention to the narratives that are made in those little circular audiences. Sometimes I smoke a pipe at Child's, and while I seem attentive to nothing but *The Postman*, overhear the conversation of every table in the room. I appear on Sunday nights at Saint James's coffee-house, and sometimes join the little committee of politics in the inner room, as one who comes there to hear and improve. My face is likewise very well known at the Grecian, the Cocoa-tree, and in the theatres both of Drury Lane and the Haymarket. I have been taken for a merchant upon the Exchange for above these ten years, and sometimes pass for a Jew in the assembly of stock-jobbers at Jonathan's. In short, wherever I see a cluster of people, I always mix with them, though I never open my lips but in my own club.

"Thus I live in the world rather as a 'Spectator' of mankind than as one of the species, by which means I have made myself a speculative statesman, soldier, merchant and artisan, without ever meddling with any practical part in life. . . I never espoused any party with violence, and am resolved to observe a strict neutrality between the Whigs and Tories, unless I shall be forced to declare myself by the hostilities of either side. In short, I have acted in all the parts of my life as a 'looker-on,' which is the character I intend to preserve in this paper. . .

"I have been often told by my friends, that it is a pity so many useful discoveries which I have made should be in the possession of a silent man. For this reason, therefore, I shall publish a sheetful of thoughts every morning, for the benefit of my contemporaries, and if I can in any way contribute to the diversion of the country in which I live, I shall leave it, when I am summoned out of it, with the secret satisfaction of thinking that I have not lived in vain."

Exercises on the Source Readings

(1)

1. What is a sonnet? What other sonnets by Milton do you know?
2. What do you know about (a) Milton, (b) Henry Lawes?
3. Paraphrase this sonnet into your own prose.
4. What passages in this sonnet confirm what is said about Lawes on p. 343?
5. Explain as fully and as carefully as you can the meaning and significance of the phrases "just note and accent," and "committing short and long," in lines 3 and 4.
6. What can you learn from this sonnet about Milton himself?
7. Learn the sonnet by heart.

(11)

1 Give as many reasons as you can why this passage is headed "The Spectator."

2 When was passage (11) written, by whom, and in what form did it appear?

3 What do you know about the author and his writings?

4 What can you learn from passage (11) about (a) amusements, (b) politics, (c) business men, (d) new customs, in the seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries?

5 Write notes on the following Will's, Child's, the Grecian, the Cocoa-Tree, Jonathan's, *The Postman*, Whigs, Tories, "my next paper," "a sheetful of thoughts every morning," "my own club"

6 Learn by heart the first paragraph of extract (11).

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER X

Charts, etc

Make Time Charts to illustrate

1. Literature and art, etc., in the seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries (have separate columns for (a) literature, (b) painting and architecture, (c) music, (d) science)
2. Economic and social history, 1600-1714

Draw Maps or Plans of

1. Britain in the seventeenth century, showing the chief towns and the chief industrial districts
2. Your own town or village in the seventeenth or early eighteenth century (copy an old map or plan if possible)

Questions

I

1. What do you know about the following: Sir C. Wren, Henry Purcell, Henry Lawes, *Comus*, *L'Allegro*, *Il Penseroso*, *Paradise Lost*, *Samson Agonistes*, John Bunyan, *Pilgrim's Progress*, Dryden, *Absalom and Achitophel*, Pope, Swift, Addison, Steele, Royal Society, William Harvey, Robert Boyle, Edmund Halley, Sir Isaac Newton, Galileo, *The Examiner*, *The Postman*, *The Observer*?

2. What do we mean by economic revolution, domestic system, yeoman, middleman, squire, coffee-house, virginals, spinet, clavichord, harpsichord, viol, lute, epic poem, sonnet, conventicle, satire?

3. What were the chief occupations in your town in the seventeenth century? What are they now?

4. What were the chief amusements in seventeenth-century towns?

5. What do you know about seventeenth-century music, musicians, and musical instruments?

6. What were the chief scientific discoveries made during the seventeenth century? What do you know about their discoverers?

350 LIFE AND LITERATURE IN STUART BRITAIN

II

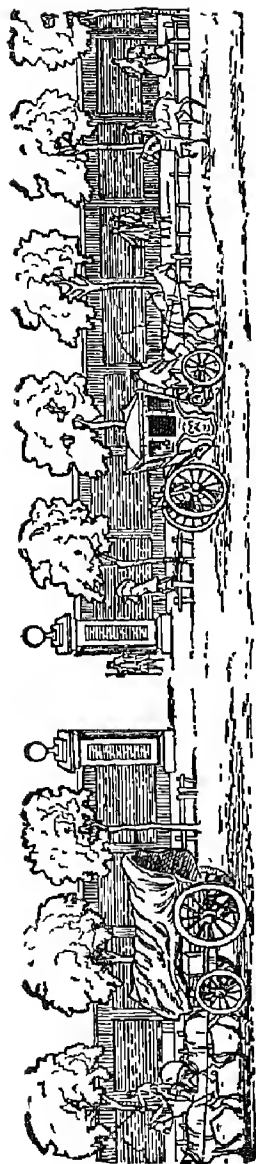
1. In what ways was (a) town life, (b) country life, different in the seventeenth century from what it is now?

2 Write an account of the life of Milton, and say what you know of his chief writings

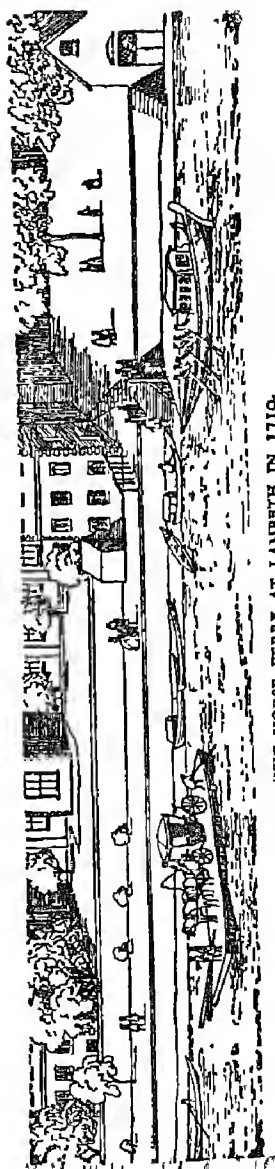
3 In what ways did English literature change after the Restoration?

4 How does the literature of the seventeenth century help us to understand the social life of the time?

5 Would you sooner have lived in the sixteenth or the seventeenth century? Give as many reasons as possible for your answer



PICCADILLY IN THE REIGN OF QUEEN ANNE.



THE HORSE FERRY AT LAIBETH IN 1710.

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